THE GLEANER;

OR,

MONTHLY MAGAZINE.

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STACY POTTS, JUN. *Editor.*

LANCASTER, (PENN.)

PRINTED BY WILLIAM GREER.

Addreſs to the Genius of America;

OR,

The CARRIER *of the* GLEANER *to its* PATRONS.

O'ER the bloody arena of Europe's mad nations,
Afflicted with famine, and tumult, and pain,
Distracted with wars and oppress'd by taxations,
We search for contentment and peace—but in vain.

Then hail sweet Columbia! why wilt thou repine?
Compar'd with old Europe's, how mild is thy fate?
Still virtue, and peace and abundance are thine,
And contentment, and honor thy efforts await.

Tho' rash pow'r hath infring'd thy just rights on the main,
Yet reason and justice 'tis hoped may prevail;
Or the sword and the cannon those rights shall regain,
If reason and justice attempt it, and fail.

Then calm those harsh murmers, be patient and wise;
'Tis the esscence of prudence awhile to forbear;
If compell'd, thy brave sons in their strength shall arise,
And o'erwhelm thy proud foes in defeat and despair.

O'er thy regions no longer let discord increase,
But bid the curs'd feuds of fell party to die;
Encourage true wisdom, and neighbourly peace,
And *united*, the force of all Europe defy.

So adviseth the Gleaner, so singeth his boy,
May our song and advice be correctly pursued;
And each NEW YEAR still add to Columbia's joy,
'Till the earth and its nations by time are subdued.

Lancaster, January 1st, 1809.

THE GLEANER;

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For the Gleaner.

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On the public character of Mirabeau.

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THERE are moments in the fortune of states when particular men are called to make improvements by great and extraordinary exertions. In those moments, when inability sinks to despair, and cowardice shrinks to inaction, genius bursts the obscurity which invests it; shines with increasing lustre and by its dazzling splendor extorts our applause and admiration. Genius may be buried in solitude, or waste its force in vain, when all around is calm and prosperous, and no disquietudes interpose to ruffle the sea of life. Afflictions and adversities try the soul, and show the hero and the man; they degrade weakness and exalt supereminent talents. But more especially do national dangers and disasters, disclose latent abilities, usher them to the view of the world, and engage them in the busy scene of public transactions. The gloomy aspect of affairs, the storms of internal commotion and civil dissention, awfully impending, fire their ardour, incite them to action, and afford the strongest display of their astonishing powers. The long and splendid career of the French revolution, like all convulsions of empires, has furnished a wide inviting theatre for the exertions of genius. But from amidst such confusion, injustice, slaughter, and scenes of inhuman cruelty, have sprung men more distinguished for their superior talents, than for firm heroic virtue. Such was Mirabeau, a man whose mental abilities cannot be over-rated, and whose vices and immoralities cannot be too much detested; as a public agent, he commands our respect, but, as a private citizen, he deserves the censure of posterity. The actions, the character, and the political tenets of Mirabeau, have been painted in the blackest and most disgusting colours. He is represented by one party as a lawless demagogue, whose designing and persuasive eloquence inflamed the populace, and instilled into their minds that ardent fury, that epidemic, enthusiastic rage for equal liberty, which aimed at personal exaltation, the levelling of property, and the destruction of subordination: By the other, he is painted, as

the zealous royalist, the supporter of regal tyranny, the sycophant of power, and the enemy of popular freedom. But these opposite and disgraceful portraits, must have originated in the proneness of some men to depreciate surpassing excellence. The high station and extensive influence, which his abilities and efforts had enabled him to acquire, were enviously viewed by the associates of his power, and have been egregiously misrepresented by the recorders of his fame. As the firm advocate of rational liberty, he was hated by the dependants on royal bounty; as the friend of limited monarchy, he was obnoxious to the levelling revolutionist. Duly to appreciate his character and greatness, we must view the period of his public transactions; the spirit of the nation; the violent contending factions, and the opposite interests of the different leaders: we must view the general situation of France; the spirit of the people broken by despotism and worn out by the long continued tyranny of their rulers; the tottering empire tumbling by its own weight, crushing the remains of liberty, and rapidly sinking to the abyss of anarchy: we must view France degraded in the sight of nations; torn by intestine broils, and fast tending to that awful revolution which has "shaken the stable tyranny of thrones;" convulsed the astonished kingdoms of Europe; and wracked to its centre the fabric of Gallic despotism. It was his fate to flourish at a time when infidelity was a virtue; disloyalty patriotism, and licentious cruelty the sure road to power and preferment. As he conducted the revolution in its commencement, he has been confounded with its succeeding leaders, and thought similar to the inhuman Condorcet, and the attrocious Robespiere. But we must consider him as the main support of rational freedom and the new constitution, while those nefarious villains were rising into notice, and establishing the foundation of their power on the ruins of authority, and in the blood of the terror-struck nation. He was not one of the jacobin club, containing Robespiere and Danton. He did not advocate the exterminating principles of the philosophic cabal. He did not wish to systematize the visionary phantoms of the national assembly; to reduce to practice, the enormous and delusive theories of those mock legislators. He did not assist the convention in their endeavors to subvert all moral government; to choke up and polute the fountain of justice; to "subtillize the French nation into savages," and to "degrade the stedfastness of law, into the waywardness of will:" the love of his country forbade it; his sense of justice, and respect for his fame, would not permit it. Custom had long inured the French people to monarchy; their prejudices were strongly inclined to support it: Mirabeau did not wish to subvert this monarchy, and in its stead to erect that levelling mobocratical system, which he knew would prove ruinous to his country. His design was to reduce the prerogative of the crown, to invest the convention

with a consistent portion of power, to change the despotic lord of twenty-five millions, into the chief magistrate, and executor of the laws of France, and to exalt the people from slaves, to the condition of citizens. For this purpose he restrained the frantic enthusiasm of the nation by the irresistable powers of his eloquence, and shielded them from the tyranny of that oppressive and arbitrary system, against which he "inveighed so violently, and which he attacked with such energy." The fanatic frenzy, the glowing fury of the people, fanned by the eloquent breath of aspiring demagogues, spurned all legal restraint, and fired by self confidence, led them to annihilate all semblance of authority; to sweep away the sacred altars of justice and religion, and to rest on the baseless foundation of the pillars of atheism. The demon of revolutionary madness seized their minds; impetuously bore them away, and hurried them to wade through blood and tumult to the turbulent and rocky shore of an all disorganizing anarchy. The genius of Mirabeau opposed the torrent of revolution, assuaged its licentious fury, and, for a while, restrained its wide wasting career. But complete success in his designs was prevented by the storms of increasing commotion, and "his life, and his projects were dissolved by the stroke of death."—Even then his former counsels had their usual force, and for a moment, suspended the rapid downfall of rushing monarchy: The death of Mirabeau forever sealed the fate of his country. Government, no longer guided by his wisdom, sunk into the hands of artful and designing men, and yielded itself the unwilling victim, to confusion and anarchy; to the turbulence of faction, and the violence of popular rage. The fury of the populace, no longer restrained and directed by his eloquence, burst the limits of controul, deluged the country with blood, and precipitated that ill fated nation into the horrors of anarchy, the tyranny of the people, and the abyss of destruction.

CHILO.

A SENSIBLE MADMAN.

A LORD, whom his friends had been obliged to put in a private mad-house, was not mad enough to remain insensible to the charms of the keepers pretty daughter.—His lordship, encouraged in his addresses, agreed to marry her. The day was fixed, the bands published, and they left the mad-house in a coach to have the ceremony performed. When arrived in the church, his lordship very properly led the lady to the altar; and the clergyman began the ceremony, saying to his lordship, "Do you take this woman for your wedded wife?" Upon which he exclaimed, "No no, not so mad as that neither!" then taking to his heels, ran out of the church, and was not found for a considerable time afterwards.

AN ACCOUNT

OF the wool purchased in the years 1802, 1803, & 1804, and employed in G. Britain for the manufacture of the finest woollen goods.

In the 3 years specified, there were imported, of Spanish wool, directly from

Spain,	*lb.*	16,986,644
Holland,		403,400
Portugal,		400,723
Gibralter,		288,274
France,		252,222
Germany,		122,150
America,		10,567
Prussia,		3,357
Denmark,		381
Total	*lb.*	18,467,718

Of this quantity, about 15,307,718 *lb.* were imported in Spanish or neutral, and the remaining 3,160,000 *lb.* in English vessels.

Of the quantity imported in Spanish or neutral vessels, about 15,141,900 *lb.* were sheep's wool, and 165,778 *lb.* lambs wool. Of the sheep's wool the proportions were, of the R. or first sort, about 12,000,000 *lb.*; of the F. or second sort, about 2,000,000 *lb.* of the T. or third sort, about 1,127,020 *lb.*; and of the K. or coarsest sort, about 14,920 *lb.*

The average prices given for these wools by the clothiers in England were nearly as follow:

R. Sheep's wool,	12,000,000	at 6s per lb.	£ 3,600,000
F. ditto	2,000,000	5	500,000
T. ditto	1,127,020	4 6d	253,579
K. ditto	14,920	3	2,238
Lambs wool	165,778	4 3d	35,227
	15,307,718 lb.		£ 4,391,044

What the merchants' profit might be is not presumed to be determined; but if we allow 15 per cent. inclusive of interest or £ 658,656, the remainder, or £ 3,733,288, will be the sum actually paid out of the kingdom for this part of the imported wool.

Besides these quantities, there were imported in British vessels about 3,160,000 lb. of Spanish wool; of which the respective proportions were, probably, nearly as follow:

R. Sheep's wool	2,477,182 lb.	at 6s.	£ 743,154
F. ditto	412,864	5	103,216
T. ditto	232,652	4 6d	52,346
K. ditto	3,079	3	461
Lambs wool	34,223	4 3d	7,272
	3,160,000		£ 906,449 sterling.

From the gross amount of the latter sum, which is what is paid by the manufacturer, there must in this case be deducted not only the merchants' profits, but also the expenses of freight and insurance. These cannot with any accuracy be stated.

There were taken into England within the same period from Germany 561,604 lb. of wool, not called Spanish, but a great deal of which was of the same quality.

There is the same difficulty with regard to 613,059 lb. of wool imported from Africa and the Cape of Good Hope.

From Portugal there came also 486,124 lb. the greater part of which was probably equal to the third, or even the coarser second sort of Spanish wool.

From these data, gross as some of them are, little doubt can be entertained, that during the three years in question, Great Britain paid to foreign countries for the wool which was the chief basis of its fine woollen manufactures, at least £ 4,700,000; or upwards of £ 1,560,000; nearly 7,000,000 dollars, *per annum*.

AGRICULTURAL MEMOIRS.

Just published and for sale by Jane Aitkin, No. 71, North Third Street, and most of the booksellers, also at Bernard M'Mahon's seed store, No. 39, South Second Street, Philadelphia; price $ 2 50, Memoirs of the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia.

IT is with pleasure we announce the publication of this work. "The Philadelphia society for promoting agriculture was formed in the year one thousand seven hundred and eighty five. After several years of active exertions, it was unfortunately permitted to fall into a long sleep; but was again revived in the winter of one thousand eight hundred and four, and now holds regular meetings. As it is the wish of the society to pursue its labours with all the zeal due to the importance of the object, for which it was instituted, the communications of all practical agriculturalists, upon whose support the usefulness of the society will in a great measure depend, are earnestly solicited. The example being once set will be followed by others; and thus, a body of information will be collected; which may essentially benefit the country. The pursuits of the industrious farmer, being more of a practical than of a literary nature, he may be induced to think that he is not qualified to give a written account of his improvements, but let not such be backward. The society are in want of facts and they care not in what style of language they are communicated. *Criticism* is misapplied and out of place on such occasions. The communications of philosophical and literary characters, on any points contributary to the ellucidation of

subjects, connected with agriculture, will be highly beneficial and gratifying. Two subjects in particular, are deemed worthy of great attention, from all concerned in agriculture; and on these the society would gladly receive information: viz. *on the diseases of our domestic animals, and, on new manures.*

"The improvement of the breed of horned cattle, sheep and swine, is also a desirable object; the society will therefore also receive, with thanks, all information respecting domestic breeds, which have been found to possess peculiar good qualities; and they strongly urge the necessity of preserving, for breed, all those, even of accidental offspring, possessing the desirable and requisite qualities, to entitle them to value and preference. Thus a breed of neat cattle, producing oxen, remarkable for speed of gait and strength, symetry of form, and gentleness of disposition; and a tendency to fatten quickly, and to increase of flesh and fat, upon those points which recommend them at market, are to be attended to. It is well known that the diversity in these respects is great, and constitutes the ground of important improvements by various spirited farmers in Europe.

"With respect to sheep, the objects to be attended to, are in part common with those noted as to oxen. Within a few years, large sizes were chief objects of attention in England; but repeated experiments have shewn, that they are not so profitable, as those of a moderate size."

The foregoing remarks are extracted from the preface to the memoirs of the society, for the purpose of giving our agricultural readers a view of the objects of that society, and to aid as much as in our power the laudable endeavors of the instituton.

MISCELLANEOUS EXTRACTS.

LEARNING, like money, is not an end, but a means; and it is as ridiculous to possess one as the other, without using it for the good of mankind.

No man has a right to be idle, who has not been busy. Let him that thinks he has a right to live as a recluse, ask himself how he would be fed and clothed, if the same supposed right was claimed by others.

If all that is called learning was brought to the test, and nothing retained but truth, the largest library might soon be read.

He that affects to distinguish himself by singularities that are hurtful to society, gives an indubitable proof of a little mind, that has no other power of gratifying its vanity.

SHIPWRECK OF CAPTAIN HENRY WILSON, ON THE PELEW ISLANDS.

(Continued from page 161.)

WE come now to contemplate a scene peculiarly interesting. Next morning the English proceeded, before day-break, to make ready for the launch ; it need scarcely be mentioned, that uncommon pains were taken to put every thing in the most favourable train for getting the vessel afloat. About seven, the king and attendants were desired to be present, and in a little time the schooner was safely launched, to the general joy of every spectator, and by Abba Thulle's desire, was named the Oroolong. Never was there a more affectingly happy scene.--Every eye seemed to sparkle with a lustre borrowed for the occasion.--Every countenance looked animating joy and heartfelt satisfaction ; but few among them could utter their feelings ; looks of congratulation circulated around, while every one shook his neighbour's hand with warmest fervor. Home, wives, parents, children, friends--all--all seemed as within grasp.—But description is unequal to this task. Let not, however, the behaviour of their Pelew friends be forgotten. In their joy, which was also unbounded, real philanthropy was to be seen.—They saw, by this occurrence, those friends whom they valued, about to leave them ; those friends by whom they had been so much benefitted, and from whom they had learned so much.--But they saw them happy.—They knew their whole comfort depended upon the success of this event, and therefore their benevolent hearts participated in the general joy.

After a very happy breakfast indeed, they proceeded to carry every thing aboard, with all possible expedition, and in the afternoon, the flood tide coming in, the ship was hauled into the bason, a deep place of four or five fathoms water ; and, in the course of the day, they got on board all the provisions and stores, such only excepted as were to be given in presents to the king; and in the morning took on board their anchors, cables, and other necessaries, making bitts, and fitting a rail across the stern of the vessel.

The weather and wind appearing favourable, the captain informed Abba Thulle, that they purposed sailing the next day. This very much distressed him ; for he had sent word to the neighbouring rupacks, that the day following that now mentioned by the captain, was the day the English meant to sail. In consequence of which they were to come to Oroolong the next night, to furnish them with provisions, and bid them farewell. This information determined the captain still more to set sail in the forenoon, as the number of canoes to be expected, would

greatly incommode them. He therefore apologized in the best manner he could to the king, who appeared greatly disappointed. He then begged that the captain and officers would dine with him and his brothers on shore. With this they cheerfully complied, and after dinner, the king signified his intention of investing the captain with the order of the BONE, and making him a rupack of the first rank. The captain expressed his acknowledgments for the intended honour, when the bone was drawn over his left hand, with great solemnity, by the chief minister and Raa Kook, on which the whole assembly testified their joy. The king, then addressing the captain, told him "that the bone should be rubbed bright every day, and preserved as a testimony of the rank he held among them; that this mark of dignity must, on every occasion, be valiantly defended, nor suffered to be torn from his arm, but with the loss of life."

Our readers may perhaps smile at this simple badge of dignity; but they should recollect, that the object and the end are every where the same; and that a star on the breast, or a bone on the arm, in themselves are equally insignificant. All public honours hold out a prize to merit, and in this light only should they be regarded.

As a further proof of Abba Thulle's confidence, he proposed entrusting Captain Wilson with the care of his second son, Prince Lee Boo, whose affecting story will soon be recorded. The king's object in this was to improve the young man in the knowledge, which he saw the English possess in an eminent degree, and to render him useful to his native country in future. Raa Kook also solicited permission to accompany them; but this request was refused by the king, from very prudential motives of policy.

Arra Kooker, who, from the first, seemed to have set his heart on the Newfoundland dog, so warmly importuned the captain for his favourite, that they could not resist his solicitations. But the general's intention was far otherwise employed. He was already building a ship in imagination; and to realize his design, wished them to leave their launching ways, saying he would go to work on the same place.

The king had laughed at the insignificance of Arra Kooker's request of the dog; but the subject of ship-building caught his most serious attention. It was of national importance, and of course demanded the patronage of a good prince.

In the midst of their discourse, a battle on board the ship, between two sailors, called for the presence of the captain. The damage proved no greater than a bloody nose, which, being settled, Mr. Wilson again returned.--When the circumstances was explained to the king, he observed that there were, no doubt, bad men in all countries.

Permission was asked, and obtained, to hoist an English pen-

dant on a tree near the cove, with an inscription as follows, on copper, to be placed on another tree adjacent:

THE HONOURABLE
ENGLISH EAST INDIA COMPANY'S SHIP,
THE ANTELOPE,
HENRY WILSON, COMMANDER,
WAS LOST ON THE REEF NORTH OF THIS ISLAND,
IN THE NIGHT
BETWEEN THE 9TH AND 10TH OF AUGUST;
WHO HERE BUILT A VESSEL,
AND SAILED FROM HENCE
THE 12TH OF NOVEMBER, 1783.

Captain Wilson explained the purport of this inscription to Abba Thulle, who was greatly pleased with it; and having explained it to his people, he assured the English that it should carefully stand there in remembrance of their visitors.

The conversation this day was principally confined to the approaching separation. "When you are gone," said the king, "I much dread that the Artingalls will redouble their attempts against me: and, deprived of your aid, I shall probably feel the effects of that animosity they have always had towards my people, and having no more the English to support me, I shall not be a match for them, unless you leave the few muskets you promised me.

The captain was quite satisfied to comply with the request immediately; but most of the officers, who still had apprehensions, were unwilling to give up the arms until the last moment. That unlucky suspicion, of being detained, which had so ungenerously taken possession of them, had been so rivetted in their minds, that it was not easily dislodged. It is necessary, however, not to condemn the Englishmen too hastily. They had been accustomed to see roguery so generally, and so scientifically practised, that distrust and suspicion are naturally instilled among the first principles of education; and it was not easy for them to conceive, that the same species should be so very different, even at opposite quarters of the globe; but here they saw the open, undisguised actions of nature, knowing no deceit, and dreading none.

Abba Thulle was too quick-sighted not to observe their distrust; and it is not easy to express the agitation which laboured in his breast, on finding that doubts were harboured of his sincerity. "Why," said he, "should you distrust me? I never refused you my confidence. If my intentions had been hostile, you would have known it long ago, being entirely in my power. But, on the contrary, you have had my utmost assistance; and yet, to the very last, you suspect me of bad designs!"

The earnestness of his manner, spoke his feelings more than his words; nor need it be doubted, that a little recollection brought the blush into the countenances of those whom he addressed. The man who had uniformly behaved with such disinterested, unsuspecting benevolence—the man who freely committed his own son to their care, to be doubted within a few hours of their parting, was a stab, which the sensibility of Abba Thulle could not support. The severity and truth of his reproach, and the noble dignity with which he supported himself, brought the daring thought, which some had entertained, of butchering him and his brothers, to view, and gave a most captivating picture of the mild, yet forcible triumph of virtue. They found themselves guilty, and saw evidently, that virtue will flourish in whatever soil she is implanted. Without further hesitation, they sent on board for all the arms that could be spared; and on the boat's return, presented him with five muskets, five cutlasses, more than half a barrel of gunpowder, and flint and ball in proportion. Once more harmony was restored, and the generous Abba Thulle forgot, or seemed to forget, their suspicions.

The king's second son, Lee Boo, arrived in the evening from Pelew, under the care of his elder brother. Abba Thulle presented him to the captain, and then to the officers. He advanced in so easy and polite a manner, having much good humour and forcible expression in his aspect, that every one was prepossessed in his favour. As it was now growing dark, the officers went on board, leaving the captain behind, at the king's request. Next day Mr. Wilson informed them, that neither he, the king, nor the rupacks, enjoyed much rest; the affectionate father employing the moments in giving advice to his son, and in recommending him to the care of the captain; not, however, from the smallest fear that he would be ill-treated: "I would wish you," said he, "to shew my son every thing that is useful, and make him an Englishman. The fine things he will see may induce him to slip away from you in search of less confined gratification; but I beg that you will contrive to calm and subdue the rashness and impetuosity of his youth. I well know, from the different countries he must pass through, that he will be liable to dangers, and even to diseases that we never heard of, which may kill him; but I also know that death is the common lot; and whether he dies with you or at Pelew, is of no moment. I know you are a man of humanity; and am, therefore, confident, that if my son be sick, you will look on him with kindness. But should that happen, which your utmost care cannot prevent, let it not deter you or your brother, or any of your countrymen from returning, for I shall rejoice at the sight."

The captain assured the king, that he might rest satisfied of

the care and affection with which his son would be treated. Before Mr. Wilson came on board, he admonished Blanchard (the man who had resolved to renounce his country) as to his conduct among the natives. He desired him to be watchful of the arms and ammunition that would be left behind, that they might defend themselves from their enemies. He begged him not to go naked, like the natives, as it might lessen his importance with them as an Englishman, and countenance an evident indecency; and that he might have no excuse from the want of clothes, all that could be spared was left him; in order, that if he accepted the king's offer of wives, he might be enabled to dress them somewhat after his own custom. The captain did not forget to enforce on him the absolute necessity of continuing his religious duties, and to be particular in keeping Sunday. After this, he was requested to ask any favour that might tend to his future comfort; on which he begged to have one of the ship's compasses, and the masts, sails, and oars, belonging to the pinnace, which also was intended to be left behind.

Wednesday morning early, an English jack was hoisted at the mast-head of the Oroolong, and a swivel fired as a signal for sailing; which being explained to the king, he ordered all the provisions on board, which he had brought for the voyage. A great number of canoes surrounded the vessel, loaded with presents, so that it was with difficulty they could avoid being overstocked. When just ready for sea, a boat was sent on shore for the captain, who then took Blanchard and the men of the boat into a temporary hut that had been erected; and making them kneel, offered up thanksgivings to that Power, who had supported their fainting spirits through so many hazards and toils, and had at last opened to them the door of deliverance. He repeated his advice to Blanchard, earnestly begging him not to forget his religion.

When Lee Boo came to the watering-place, there were sent with him three or four dozen of a very fine fruit, similar to the English Apple. It is of a fine crimson colour, and oblong shape. This is a very rare fruit at Pelew, though there are a plenty of them in the different South Sea Islands. One of them was given to every officer, and the remainder kept for Lee Boo.

About eight o'clock the captain went on board, attended by Abba Thulle, Lee Boo, the rupacks, and Blanchard. It being doubtful, as the vessel was heavily laden with provision, whether she would be able to get over the reef, it was resolved to land the two six pounders, and leave the jolly boat behind, as they had nothing wherewith to repair her, and she was almost worn out. In her room Abba Thulle was at great pains to procure them a proper canoe.

Captain Wilson had recommended Mr. Sharp, the surgeon, to Lee Boo, as his sucalic, or friend, and the young man stuck

by him with the greatest attention, attending him to whatever part of the vessel he moved, as his mentor on all occasions. Blanchard now got into his pinnace, in order to take the vessel in tow, and parted from his old ship-mates with as much composure, as if they were to meet again after a short absence. He shook hands with them with the same indifference, as if they were to sail down the Thames on a coasting voyage—a striking contrast to what followed!

The vessel now proceeded towards the reef, deeply laden with Abba Thulle's bounty, to a degree of superfluity, and surrounded by great numbers of the natives in their canoes, who had every man brought his present, for their good friends the English.—What a luxurious sight to a feeling heart!—There was no room for them, yet every one exclaimed, "only this from me, only this from me;" and, if refused, they repeated their requests with supplicating countenances and tears in their eyes. Indeed their generosity and affection were so urgent, that a few trifles from the nearest of them were accepted; while the others, unable to bear the seeming neglect, paddled ahead, and put their little presents into the pinnace.

Several canoes went before the vessel, to point out the safest track; and others were waiting at the reef, to shew them the deepest water: from all these precautions, which were directed by the king, the reef was fortunately cleared without any accident.

The king now came along-side, and gave Lee Boo his blessing, which the youth received with great respect and tenderness. He next embraced the captain, in much apparent distress, and then cordially shook hands with all the officers, crying—"You are happy because you are going home, and I am happy because you are so; but still very unhappy at your going away." Once more renewing his assurances of regard and good will, he left the vessel and went into his canoe. The natives who were to return with the king, looked up to the vessel eagerly, with the most expressive countenances, and half dissolved in tears. This proof of delicate sensibility, and of proved affection, operated so strongly on the feelings of all aboard, that it was with much difficulty they summoned resolution enough to give three cheers at their final departure. Raa Kook remained, with a few of his attendants, to see them out of danger beyond the reef; but was so highly dejected, that the vessel had gone a great way before he thought of summoning his canoes to return. As he had been their first friend, the captain gave him a brace of pistols, and a cartouch-box with cartridges; and the moment of separation being now come, he appeared so much affected, that it was some time before he could speak. Pointing to his heart, he said it was there he felt the pain of bidding them adieu. He endeavoured to converse with Lee Boo, his nephew;

but being unable to proceed, he precipitately went into the boat, and giving them an expressive glance, as if his mind was convulsed, he instantly dropped astern; and thus terminated the connection with the natives of Pelew, after a residence among them from Sunday, the 10th of August, 1783, to Wednesday, the 12th of November, following.

It may not be unseasonable, while the amiable behaviour of these two respectable characters, Abba Thulle and Raa Kook, is fresh in the recollection of the reader, to make a few general observations on their different characters.

Never was a prince more formed to attract and retain the love and admiration of his subjects, than Abba Thulle; his appearance majestic, he commanded with authority; while his affability and easy access, rendered him almost an object of adoration to all his subjects. In one of his councils, there was as much respect paid to his naked unadorned person, as to an European potentate, amidst all his trappings and pageantry, from the surrounding sycophants. His nice honour, and quick feeling, were very discernible on many occasions; never was there a reproof more delicate, and yet more poignant, than what he gave the English, on occasion of the late affair with the muskets. He was far from one of those harmless nothings, who hurt nobody, because they have not a sense of injuries; while the warmth and sensibility of his heart, won the love of all around him, his dignity of manner, and propriety of conduct, taught them to approach him with respect. He possessed a contemplating mind, and few objects came within his observation, without being attentively considered. The prosperity of his subjects was the principal object with him. It was this that led him to part with his son Lee Boo, whom he tenderly loved--for this he was at so much pains in examining every thing about the English, that might be serviceable to his people--in fine, his whole attention was engaged in forming and executing plans, for the good of the nation and individuals. In domestic life he shone remarkably, and took a particular charge of all his own relations; the misbehaviour of his nephew, in an affair of some importance, seemed to give him the greatest pain; while, as the husband and parent, his heart seemed awake to every finer feeling which adorns humanity.

Accident only has made him acquainted with a few of the rest of mankind; and that accident he considered as the happiest of his life; we may perhaps never hear of him again, but, judging from what is already known, he may justly be considered as one of the best of men and of kings.

His brother Raa Kook was a prince of so universally engaging demeanour, and whose every action expressed something so truly valuable, that Englishmen or natives equally admired him. He was so much a friend to the English, that it may

be suspected their account of him is partial; therefore little shall here be said, and that little not exaggerated.

His natural temper was cheerful and pleasant though without that mimicry and humour for which his brother Arra Kooker was remarkable; at the same time he was far from averse to a good hearty laugh, when a proper occasion offered. As commander in chief, he was beloved by them all: he dispensed his orders calmly and smoothly, but would not tolerate neglect. No man better understood the necessity of strict discipline; so that while he encouraged his inferiors to use all becoming freedom with him, he kept them at that proper distance, which is the true key to cheerful obedience. In principles of honour, he was by no means inferior to his brother; and not only wished that the English should hold him in an honourable point of view, but all the nation; thus it was, that he could not bear the least idea of pilfering among them, and if any thing was missing, Raa Kook soon discovered and punished the delinquent. One day, a chief rupack sought a cutlass from Captain Wilson in his hearing; the frown instantly appeared, nor would he suffer it to be given him. He was exceedingly delicate in receiving favours himself; and though, from his particular disposition in enquiring after causes and effects, many things about the English were highly prized by him, he was particularly attentive, that nothing should betray any desire for what he thought might not be proper to be given.

His deportment in his family was remarkably pleasant, even to a degree which many, in this age of dissipation and stoicism, might reckon silly; but let it be noticed, that though the finer feelings shone in the natives of Pelew, to a length many in Britain would call effeminate.....yet in fatigue, pain, distress, and death, they appeared as heroes indeed.

(To be continued.)

METHOD OF PRESERVING THE NATURAL COLOUR OF FLOWERS.

AT a meeting of the Philomatic Society, at Paris, citizen Hauy stated the means which he had successfully employed to preserve the natural colour in the petals of a great number of dryed flowers. It was only necessary to immerse them, for some minutes in *alcohol*, (ardent spirit, or what is called spirit of wine.) The colours at first faded, but in a short time they resumed their natural tint, which remained permanently fixed.—The author is fully convinced of the success of this experiment, as he made it ten years ago on the flowers of various plants, particularly viola odorata, geranium sanguinem, vicia dumetorum.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE GLEANER.

Sir,

By republishing from the Lancaster Repository, the following essay in behalf of the FEMALE CHARACTER, *you will oblige*

— A FEMALE.

"*To give society its highest taste;*
And sweeten all the toils of human life:
This is the female dignity and praise!" THOMPSON.

.....

IN almost all periodical publications, the FAIR SEX have been attacked with illiberal censure or unjust animadversion. This practice, so inconsistent with justice or propriety, has unfortunately been too long applauded and too generally countenanced. It is true, the human mind is naturally prone to syndicate; but, to ...." *hate that excellence it cannot reach*,"....must originate either from a malignant heart, or envious disposition. Improper acts usually proceed from ignorance or evil motives. As, however, it would be foreign to the object of the present essay, to investigate the motives of such vile aspersion, a candid examination of the subject, it is presumed will be sufficient.

In almost every age and country, woman has been considered by man as a being inferior and subservient to himself. Nay, some philosophers have very gravely and learnedly endeavored to establish this opinion. Indeed it cannot be denied that the tyrannical customs of some countries have so degraded them, that the primary and efficient purposes of their creation have been totally perverted—But as this has proceeded entirely from the tyranny of man without the coincidence of nature, no tenable argument can thence be deduced with any degree of plausibility in support of man's superiority.

Nature in the first formation of man, endowed him with certain powers or faculties susceptible of receiving impressions. As ideas are not innate, these impressions must be received from external causes, such as *education*, &c. The mind which obtains this, springs up as the luxuriant growth of the vine; while that which does not, remains a barren heath. Hence it is, that, as by the political and internal regulations of most countries, the education of males is attended to with the utmost care and attention, and that of the females neglected with the most shameful supineness, man, the proud lord of the creation, has assumed the superiority. But is he entitled to it? No; for it is acquired by a monopoly of those external causes of which woman is deprived

The weakness, timidity, and delicate form of woman have also been resorted to as an argument in support of this ideal and boasted-of superiority. If this can be maintained, why then are not the most vigorous and robust part of mankind the most intelligent? Why does not the sturdy and laborious peasant blaze forth in the boundless regions of philosophy with the magnifficent

and effulgent splendor of a Newton or a Franklin? Why does not the wild, the ruthless, and almost invincible savage charm the ear, enlighten the mind, and please the imagination with the flowing and the harmonious strains of the elegant and didactic Pope? The reason is plain—they are illiterate. The world is indebted for all works of literature to the refined cultivation of the mind. Wherever this is unattended to, literature can never flourish. If then women do not enjoy this necessary and indispensable quality, how is it possible that they can shine as eminent as those characters who do? To acertain their powers, and duly to appreciate their talents, it will be necessary to give them the same advantages possessed by man. Notwithstanding, however, the inconveniencies which necessarily flow from this want of *liberal* education, some women have, by the native energies of their minds, arisen to a degree of eminence that has excited the fears and alarmed the jealousies of great contemporary literary characters. Lady Montague, Mrs. Russel, Mes. Radcliffe, Mrs. Bailie, Madam Dacier, Hannah Moore, and others, have displayed in their writings an extent of capacity, a sublimity of conception, a profoundness and solidity of thought, an easy elegance of expression, and a purity of sentiment and diction, that would do honor to the brightest sons of science.

The greatest orators that ever poured the stream of eloquence from the Roman rostrum, disdained not to add new lustre and animation to their discourses, from the fruitful source of female genius—Caius Gracchus, "whose eloquence," says Cicero, "was like a sword in the hands of a madman," received in his profession no other instructions but from his mother. And Cicero himself, whose name alone expresses all that is grand and beautiful in oratory, seized with avidity every recess from his professional duty, to improve and imbellish his native talents by the society of learned and enlightened ladies.

Examples likewise are recorded in history, of women who are unrivaled in the knowledge of government and tactics. The Semiramis, Zenobia, and Boadicea of the ancients; the Elizabeth and Catharine of the moderns are the heroines alluded to. The three former were able warriors, and the neighboring kingdoms trembled at the power of their all-subduing arms. Modern history does not furnish an instance of a monarch under whose reign the government was more vigorously and at the same time more temperately administered, or where the people were rendered more happy than during that of the English Elizabeth. The same may with propriety be said of Catharine of Russia.—These are adduced merely to shew that women are adapted to move in any sphere with the same ability that man is, provided they have the same opportunities.

Is it not then evident, that if women were not by the arbitrary customs of society, unwarranted by any of the laws of nature, precluded from a co-operation with man in his pursuits, or a partici-

pation of those external causes which enlarge the comprehension of his understanding, he could not have the least pretension to superiority? Indeed why should he? Were not both sexes formed by the same creator? Holy writ informs us, that when God had created man, he said, "It is not good that man should be alone, I will make him *an help meet* for him." Now, would it not arraign the wisdom of the deity to suppose he would make a being who was to counsel, advise with, and assist man, in any degree inferior to him? If he did, of what utility would the help meet be? Might he not as well have said, I will make woman that she may be the servant of man?

If nature evinces her designs by her works, woman was destined to be the friend and companion of man. As such she cannot be too much admired and esteemed. Uniting in herself all the qualities of the mind, intellectual and moral, her very appearance indicates her destination. Possessing modesty, sensibility, tender and social affection, and every endearing virtue, she is the lovliest object in nature, and may truly be called Heaven's "last best gift."—Before woman delighted and adorned creation,

"*There dwelt no joy in Eden's rosy bower!*
In vain the viewless seraph ling'ring there,
At starry midnight, charmed the silent air;
In vain the wild bird caroll'd on the steep,
To hail the sun slow wheeling from the deep;
In vain to soothe the solitary shade,
Ærial notes in mingling pleasure play'd
The summer wind that shook the spangled tree,
The whispering wave, the murmur of the bee—
Still slowly pass'd the melancholy day,
And still the stranger wist not where to stray—
The world was sad!—the garden was a wild!
And man the hermit sigh'd—till woman smil'd."

VINDEX.

An account of the self-immolation of the two widows of Ameer Jung, late regent of Tanjore.

THE regent died on the 16th of April, 1802, about 10 o'clock, A. M. The moment he expired, two of his wives adorned themselves with their jewels and richest clothes, entered the apartment in which the body was laid, and after three prostrations sat down by it, and announced to the whole court, which had assembled around it, their determination to devote themselves to the flames.

The youngest of the women was the regular wife, about twenty years of age, and without children; the other was a wife of

inferior rank, aged twenty-six, having one child, a daughter four years old. The fathers and brothers of both were present in the assembly—they made entreaties to divert them from their purpose, but without success.

The British resident at Tanjore, having been apprised of the intention of these ladies, and not being able to be personally present at the residence of the regent, had sent his hircarrah to the spot, with orders to use every possible effort short of absolute force, to prevent the horrid sacrifice. When the relations of the ladies found their entreaties of no avail to induce them to relinquish their purpose the hircarrah was sent for; but his threats of the displeasure of the government had but a temporary and feeble effect. The Mahratta chiefs observed, that the company had never interfered in their religious institutions and cerimonies; that the sacrifice in question was by no means uncommon in Tanjore; that it was highly proper to use every art of persuasion and entreaty to induce the women to relinquish their resolutions; but if they persisted in it, force ought not to be used to restrain them. The women laughed at the menaces of the hircarrah, when he told them that their fathers and brothers would be exposed to the displeasure of the government. The young widow observed, that it was not the custom of the English government to punish one person for the act of another; and pointing to her father who had actually thrown himself at her feet in an agony of grief, asked the hircarrah if he thought any other inducement could alter her resolution, when his affliction failed to move it? The young brother of the other went into the women's apartments, and returned with his sister's child in his arms, which he laid at her feet, but such was the resolution of these astonishing women, that not a single expression of regret, not a sigh or tear could be drawn from them.

Any one of these weaknesses would have disqualified them from burning with the body—and the efforts of the relations were strenuously and constantly directed to excite them, but in vain. In answer to an observation that the late Regent had he been aware of their intention would have forbidden it, they said they had formed their resolution a year before, and communicated it to him; who, after several ineffectual attempts to dissuade them had consented to it.

The hircarrah, however, determined to protract the performance of the obsequies, if possible, until the arrival of the resident. The women waited with patience until seven in the evening, taking no other refreshment than a betel occasionally. They then sent for the hircarrah, and told him that they suspected the cause of the delay, and were resolved, if the procession did not immediately set out, to kill themselves before him. Their relatives now gave up the point in despair. The other chiefs, who had taken no part therein, now interfered, and said they had a

right to be indulged, and should not be restrained.—The hircarrah retired, and the procession set out.

The younger and regular wife mounted the pile on which the body of the deceased regent had been placed, and they were consumed together. The fate of the other who was not entitled to this distinction, was in appearance more dreadful. A pit eight feet deep, and six in diameter, had been dug a few yards distant from the pile; it was filled with combustible matter, and fire set to it. When the flames were at the fiercest, fire was applied to the pile in which the young widow and the body of the regent had been enclosed. The other, unsupported, walked thrice round the pit, and, after making obeisance to the pile, threw herself into the midst of the flames, and was no more heard or seen!

On Perception.

[*From Mr. Scott's Elements of Intellectual Philosophy.*]

"WE have seen with how little success philosophers have invented theories, in order to throw light upon the process of sensation; and to trace the particular manner in which material objects convey impressions to our intellectual principle. They have not been less desirous to investigate the mode of action of perception; but as this faculty is of a still more intellectual and refined nature, it is not to be supposed that their hypotheses have been attended with very fortunate results. Such hypotheses, however, have been very prevalent from the remotest antiquity; and, contrary to the general course of such things, have preserved a considerable uniformity, and been implicitly admitted by succeeding philosophers as a rational basis of investigation. The consequence has been, a systematic diffusion of error in this branch of science, unparalleled in any other; so as at length to be matured into a complete system of scepticism, or disbelief. Those who wish to see the gradual progress of this sceptical philosophy completely developed, are referred to Dr. Reid's second essay on the intellectual powers. Our present plan requires only a brief statement of the leading opinions of philosophers concerning the operation of perception.

"The first philosopher, in whose writings we find a systematic theory concerning perception, is Aristotle. According to this theory, perception, as well as all the other operations of the mind, is carried on by the agency of certain images, forms or species of material objects there present. The images presented to our senses were called sensible species, or forms; and were supposed to be continually sent off from material objects, in all directions; so that by entering at the avenue of the senses, they pro-

duce perception during the day, and dreaming during the night. These images were supposed to be again presented to the memory, or imagination, in a more refined state, when they were called species, simply; and when presented to the intellect in their most refined state of all, they were called phantasms; and it was maintained, that there can be no perception, memory, or intellection, without species, or phantasms.

"This theory was well adapted to the Peripatetic philosophy, which resolved all the phenomena of the material world into the effects of two principles, called *matter* and *form*. It does not, however, appear to have originated with Aristotle; for the followers of Democritus and Epicurus held a similar doctrine with regard to slender films of subtile matter, which they supposed to come from external objects. It is likewise probable that the Pythagoreans and Platonists taught a similar theory of perception; as may be gathered from the hints which Plato gives in the seventh book of his republic, concerning the manner in which we perceive the objects of sense; which he compares to the situation of persons in a deep and dark cave, who see not external objects themselves, but only their shadows, by a light let into the cave through a small opening.

"The principle difference among these sects, was concerning the origin of the objects of the human understanding. According to the Peripatetics, these must all enter originally by the senses, as sensible species, and are merely refined and rendered more spiritual by the intellectual faculties. This doctrine afterwards passed into the maxim. "Nihil est in intellectu quod non fuit prius in sensu." Plato, on the other hand, had a very mean opinion of all the knowledge we get by the senses. All science, according to him, must be employed about what he called *ideas*, which are the eternal and immutable patterns of things, which existed before the objects of sense themselves, and are not liable to any change. This doctrine nearly coincides with what the Pythagoreans taught concerning their numbers.

"The Peripatetic philosophy, as is well known, continued to prevail in the world during a period of several centuries; nor were its metaphysical doctrines succesfully opposed 'till the time of Descartes. The theory of perception, above detailed, received a considerable modification from this philosopher. He did not, however, totally reject it; for he held it as certain, that it is only a representative picture, form, or species of an object, that is present in the mind when we perceive, and not the object itself. But he denied that these forms, or species, are sent forth from external bodies; and shewed the absurdity of this doctrine by solid arguments. He also gave the name of *ideas* to the representative forms which he supposed to be present in the mind; a term which he seems to have borrowed from the philosophy of Plato. Another peculiarity in the Cartesian system,

was the origin which it assigned to certain of our ideas, such as those of time, space, motion, &c.; which it represented to be innate, or coeval with the mind itself.

"The Cartesian theory of perception was variously modified by Malebranche, and other succeeding metaphysicians; but it is not necessary, here, to specify the peculiar notions of each. The writings of Mr. Locke are justly entitled to more consideration than those of any philosopher of the period in question. It does not appear that his opinions, concerning perception, differed materially from those of Descartes; except in respect of the origin which he assigned to the representative images, or ideas, as they now were universally named. In this respect he differed both from the Peripatetics and Cartesians; and assigned all our ideas, or notions, to two sources, viz. 1st, sensation; and, 2d, reflection or consciousness, as we have already had occasion, to specify.

"It is an evident consequence of the doctrine of perception, as admitted by Descartes and Mr. Locke, that we have no direct evidence for the existence of external objects, or of a material world; since all the objects of our perception and consciousness are only ideas, or images which have no dependence whatever upon external things. Both philosophers were too accute not to perceive this inference; but neither were inclined to give up the existence of a material world, although we have found them, without reluctance, relinquishing the independent existence of the secondary qualities of body. The arguments, however, by which they endeavored to establish the real existence of matter, are not very strong, and founded chiefly upon this position, that a benevolent Supreme power would never have given us faculties like the senses, merely in order to deceive us.

"But although we find Descartes and Mr. Locke conceiving that the existence of a material world is only supported by probable arguments, we are scarcely prepared for a system so repugnant to common sense, as positively and seriously to deny the existence of any kind of matter whatever. Yet such was the system of the ingenious bishop Berkeley, who was considered as one of the most philosophical reasoners of his day. The denial of the existence of the secondary qualities of body, but as mere sensations of the mind, which we have seen formed a part of the systems of Descartes and Locke, no doubt prepared the way for this sceptical doctrine; and it was not difficult to extend the arguments, by which the non-existence of the secondary qualities of body was supposed to be proved, to the primary also. These, according to the prevailing theory of perception, were mere ideas or images present in the mind; and we know nothing of them but as ideas existing in the mind; so that of the existence of external bodies we have no evidence. Berkeley states his system as a thing very obvious, and readily to be admitted. "Some truths

there are," says he, "so near and obvious to the mind, that a man need only open his eyes to see them. Such I take this important one to be, that all the choir of heaven, and furniture of earth,—in a word, all those bodies which compose the mighty frame of the world, have not any subsistence without a mind."

"Berkeley, though he denies the existence of a material world, yet, as became his cloth, decidedly espouses the existence of a world of spirits. In order to this, he admits that there are certain objects of human knowledge, which are not ideas, but things which have a permanent existence. These are our own minds, and their various operations, other finite minds, and the supreme mind. And this he thinks must follow from the very nature of ideas, which, being inert, passive, unthinking beings, cannot be the images of thinking and active beings; of those very beings in which they exist.

"It was a large stride in scepticism to deny the existence of a material world: but the tenets soon after advanced by Mr. Hume, and grounded upon the same theory of our perceptions, go far beyond this, even to deny the existence of mind, as well as matter. This philosopher distinguishes the images, or pictures, which were supposed to be the objects of our thoughts, into two classes, which he calls impressions and ideas; and comprehends under the first, all our sensations, passions and emotions; and, under the last, the fainter copies of these, when we remember, imagine, or reason concerning them. He sets out with this as a principle that needed no proof, (and of which, therefore, he offers none,) that all the perceptions of the human mind resolve themselves into these impressions and ideas. This being granted, it was easy to shew, by the same process which Berkeley employed to prove the non-existence of matter, that there is neither matter nor mind in the universe; nothing but impressions and ideas. What we call a body, is only a bundle of sensations; and what we call the mind, is only a bundle of passions, thoughts, and emotions, without any subject: so that Mr. Hume does not leave us even a self to claim the property of these impressions and ideas.

"The system of Mr. Hume is not to be considered as a mere philosophical reverie, concerning the manner in which the operations of the mind are conducted; but as a highly dangerous and insidious attempt to overturn every principle of belief, and rule of conduct. For it admits no other standard by which our opinions and reasonings are to be guided, than those hypothetical impressions, or ideas, which we are to look for within ourselves. From this singular assumption, the author endeavors logically to deduce, that there is no such thing as power, or intelligence, in the universe; no active cause, or voluntary agent; no time or space, matter or mind: in fine, that there is no such thing as evidence, or even probability; nor any reason why we should believe one thing, more than its contrary.

"Philosophical scepticism had now arrived at its utmost limits;* and it became time to assert the privilege of reason, and examine upon what foundation doctrines of so preposterous and dangerous a tendency rested. Dr. Reid has unquestionably the merit of being the first who successfully executed this task; and in his various works on the human mind, he has so completely accomplished it, as to leave little more to succeeding writers than to select and illustrate his various arguments.

"On examining the ground upon which the modern sceptical system rests, it is found to be nothing more than the hypothesis which represents all our perceptions and thoughts as carried on by means of images or representations of the thing perceived or thought of, present in the mind; which images, in modern terms have generally been called *ideas*;† an hypothesis which, we have

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* ["*Some ages hence, it will perhaps be looked upon as a curious anecdote, that two philosophers of the eighteenth century, of very distinguished rank, were led by a philosophical hypothesis; one to disbelieve the existence of matter; and the other, to disbelieve the existence both of matter and of mind. Such an anecdote may not be uninstructive if it prove a warning to philosophers to beware of hypothesis, especially when they lead to conclusions which contradict the principles, upon which all men of common sense must act in common life.*]

[REIDS ESSAYS.

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† ["*Anthony Arnauld however, did, in the year one thousand six hundred and eighty three, suggest some doubts of the correctness of this doctrine of ideas; indeed in his book of True and False ideas, written in opposition to Father Malebranche, he says, "those ideas are mere chimeras, fictions of the philosophers; there are no such things in nature." But as Dr. Reid observes, he seemed very unwilling to abandon the common track entirely, and what he had given up with one hand he took back with the other. For having defined ideas to be the same thing with perceptions, he adds this qualification: "I do not here consider whether there are other things that may be called ideas, &c." And he has employed the whole of his sixth chapter to shew that these ways of speaking common among philosophers, to wit,* that we perceive not things immediately; that it is their ideas that are the immediate objects of our thoughts; that it is in the idea of every thing that we perceive its properties, *are not to be rejected, but are true when rightly understood. "Upon the whole continues Dr. Reid, if Arnauld, in consequence of his doctrine that ideas,*

seen, has descended from a very high antiquity, under various modifications. As this theory was taught by the Peripatetics, however erroneous in its assumptions, it led to no sceptical conclusions; because it taught that the images present in the mind were sent forth by material objects; and, consequently, still left us the evidence of our senses for the existence of matter. But Descartes and his followers, while they retained the supposition of images in the mind, rejected that of their proceeding from the external body. The consequence was, that they began first with doubting the existence of material substances, and at length deliberately denied that there is any such thing in the world as matter, or mind, or any sentient being. "It is pleasant," says Dr. Reid, "to observe, that while philosophers have so long been labouring, by means of ideas, to explain perception, and the other operations of the mind; those ideas have, by degrees, usurped the place of perception, object, and even of the mind itself, and have supplanted those very things they were brought to explain."

"It might be reasonably concluded, that this theory, which has so long prevailed in the world, and been so implicitly admitted as to sanction conclusions apparently the most absurd, rendered our notion of perception, as well as the other intellectual faculties, very clear and intelligible. This, however, is by no means the case; for, if we apply the theory to any other of the senses, except sight, it is altogether incomprehensible. I can indeed understand what is meant by an image or representation of visible forms or colours, because, I know that such images are painted on the retina of the eye; and this fact seems to have afforded the origin of the whole hypothesis. But what is meant by the image or idea of a taste, of a smell, a sound, of sourness or sweetness, of loudness or lowness, of hardness or softness, I confess myself perfectly at a loss to determine. Much less can I pretend to understand what is meant by the images of intellectual objects, of truth or falsehood, fitness or unfitness, virtue or vice.

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taken for representative images of external objects, are a mere fiction of the philosophers, had rejected boldly, the doctrine of Descartes, *as well as of the other philosophers, concerning those fictitious beings, and all the ways of speaking that imply their existence I should have thought him more consistent with himself, and his doctrine concerning ideas more rational and more intelligible than that of any other author of my acquaintance who has treated of the subject."—Perhaps it is but just that the opinions of Arnauld should not be entirely omitted in this sketch.*]

"Again, if we should ask, where are these images exhibited, and of what kind of materials are they formed? it would be difficult to obtain an answer from those who have most strenuously espoused the theory. It would seem, from the writings of Descartes, that he sometimes places the ideas of material objects in the brain, not only when they are perceived, but when they are remembered or imagined; but at other times he says, that we are not to conceive the images or traces in the brain to be perceived, as if there were eyes in the brain; these traces being only occasions on which, by the laws of the union of soul and body, ideas are excited in the mind. Mr. Locke also seems to have wavered between these two opinions, sometimes representing the ideas of material things as being in the brain, but more frequently in the mind itself. Other philosophers, among whom we may rank Newton and Dr. Clarke, speak of the images of material things as being in that part of the brain called the *sensorium*, and perceived by the mind, there present: But Newton speaks of this point only incidentally, and, with his usual modesty, in the form of a query. As for Berkeley, his system leaves no brain on which the images could be traced; and the system of Mr. Hume leaves neither a brain nor a mind for the reception of his impressions and ideas.

"As to the particular nature or substance of the images, philosophers are generally silent. Mr. Locke indeed says, that our sensations are "produced in us by different degrees and modes of motion in our animal spirits, variously agitated by external bojects: and again, that by the faculties of memory and imagination, "the mind has an ability, when it wills, to revive them again, and, as it were, to paint them anew upon itself, though some with more, some with less difficulty." Dr. Robert Hook is almost the only author who is explicit on this subject. He informs us (Lect. on Light, sect. 7.) that ideas are completely material substances, and that the brain is furnished with a proper kind of matter for fabricating the ideas of each sense. The ideas of sight, he thinks, are formed of a kind of matter resembling the Bononian stone, or some kind of phosphorus; the ideas of sound, of some matter resembling the chords or glasses which take a sound from the vibration of the air; and so of the rest. Were this doctrine anything like the truth, we might reasonably expect to obtain a view of these ideas by a careful dissection of the brain; which, however, has not yet been found to be the case.

"What then, it may be asked, can be the cause of the very general reception of an hypothesis which is replete with so many inconsistencies and difficulties, insomuch that it rather obscures than enlightens the doctrine which it is brought to explain? This seems to be ascribable to a prejudice which is deeply rooted in the human mind, and has even been admitted, from remote antiquity, as a philosophical axiom, or self-evident principle, namely

that "nothing can act, or be acted upon, but when and where it is present." It seems a necessary consequence, from this principle, that when the mind perceives, either the objects of its perception must come into it, or it must go out of the body to these objects. The first of these opinions has generally been adopted as the most rational. "We see," says Malebranche, "the sun, the stars, and an infinity of objects without us; and it is not at all likely that the soul sallies out of the body, and, as it were, takes a walk through the heavens to contemplate all these objects." Yet the author of the Antient Metaphysics has, among his other singularities, espoused this last opinion.

"The origin of this prejudice, that all action is the effect of contact, it is not difficult to assign. This is the only manner in which we ourselves can act upon external objects; and it is the manner in which all our external senses are acted upon by these objects, either immediately, or by the intervention of some known medium, such as the rays of light, the undulations of the air, or the effluvia of odoriferous bodies. Yet, after all, when we come to examine the matter a little more nearly, we no more understand how bodies act upon one another when in contact, than when at a distance; and we should never have found out, independently of actual experience, that motion is the effect of contact or impulse. Nay, if the system of Boscovich be true, there is no such thing as real contact in nature, nor is such a thing possible. Again, there are many natural phenomena, such as those of gravitation, magnetism, electricity, &c. which appear to be produced by the mutual action of bodies at a distance from one another. For though we have various hypotheses of intervening media, ethers, or effluvia, which are intended to explain these phenomena, all these are mere suppositions, destitute of the least shadow of proof. The inference is, that the maxim above stated is to be ranked among those vulgar prejudices which, though very generally received, are without any real foundation in nature.

"If we seek for any other proof of the ideal theory, in the writings of those who have espoused it, than this generally received prejudice, we shall seek in vain. They all appear to assume the existence of ideas as a thing self-evident, and of which, therefore, no proof will be expected. "I presume," says Mr. Locke, "it will be granted me that there are such ideas in men's minds; every man is conscious of them in himself, and men's words and actions will satisfy him that they are in others."—"It is evident," he says again, "the mind knows not things immediately, but only by the intervention of the ideas it has of them." Berkeley, indeed, infers the reality of ideas from this circumstance, that magnitude and figure, as perceived by the eye, and as perceived by the touch, are things, in appearance, very different; and Mr. Hume employs a similar argument when he says,

"The table which we see, seems to diminish as we remove farther from it; but the real table, which exists independent of us, suffers no alteration. It was, therefore, nothing but its image which was present to the mind." But the known laws of optics are a sufficient answer to such reasonings, and prove, that tangible magnitude must assume the precise appearances to the eye which it is known to assume. There is, in truth, an image in such cases, but it is not in the mind, but in the ritina of the eye."

FOR THE GLEANER.

THE MODERATOR, No. 4.

"*Rara avis in terris.*"
"*An honest lawyer.*"

I AM very sensible that public sentiment is, at this time, so prejudiced against the practitioners of law, that I shall endanger the popularity, which I flatter myself I possess, by attempting to screen from obloquy, the character of a single individual of that honorable profession. But, popularity is not my object, and if it were *fiat justitia* is my maxim; and, I trust, I shall ever have firmness enough to do justice, by bestowing praise, where praise is due, or censuring vice wherever it appears, without being swayed by private interest, or public sentiment.

Though nothing is more pleasing to an author, than to know that his writings have procured him the esteem of his readers, yet that esteem, in order to be honorable, must not be obtained by flattering their prejudices, or giving countenance to their folly. On the present occasion, I am not certain but gratitude may urge me too far, and that the discovery I have made, may not appear so wonderful in the eyes of others, as it does in mine.

It seems, that Mr. Tap, whom I have had occasion to name in the two preceding essays, instigated either by the weakness of his own intellect, the desire of ascertaining the value of his character, or the malignancy of my enemies (though I do not know who can be such) thought proper to take umbrage at some expressions in my second number, and instituted a suit against me. When the sheriff called upon me with the notice, I was terror-struck, because having never before had any thing to do with courts of law, I was as ignorant how to proceed as Mr Tap would be at the communion table. I had been often told in conversation, that to fall into the clutches of the lawyers was little better than to be caught in the fangs of the devil; and with these impressions, 'tis not strange that I exclaimed at the moment,

"Farewell, a long farewell to all my greatness."

"The moderator hath indeed brought his pigs to a fine market."

However I have reason to rejoice that *I was* ignorant of the course usually taken, for the sequel will shew that this ignorance has been the cause of my deliverance much sooner than it otherwise would have been obtained: and though, I am obliged to place 150 dollars, to the worst side of my account, of profit and loss, yet as the transaction hath made me acquainted with, what I think will be considered, in the present generation, the greatest wonder of the world, and moreover enables me to teach a lesson that, if properly attended to, may be beneficial to mankind, I do not repine—I have discovered an honest lawyer!!!

After my fears had subsided, and I had complied with the formalities required by the sheriff, I determined to go to my prosecutor and, if possible, convince him that he had mistaken my observations, and was in reality persecuting me. I called upon him, but soon discovered that his anger would prevent any reconciliation between us. Indeed he would scarcely suffer me to speak to him on the subject, but very passionately told me, "he had committed the business to Mr. Quirk, and I might go to the devil for what he cared." Whether in saying this, he intended to recommend me to Mr. Quirk, in order to obtain a compromise, is not now material. So I took it, and accordingly, the next day, waited upon that gentleman.

I introduced myself by saying, that I understood he had been employed on behalf of Mr. Tap, and it had always been my practice, in case of any little disagreement with a neighbour (which very seldom happened) to meet him, or his confidential friend, face to face, and reason the matter coolly, by which means, I had hitherto avoided the perplexity and expense, said to be incident to suits at law.—That I had now attended upon *him* for a similar purpose. "You have done right" said he, "and this action proves you to be a wise man."—I was pleased with the observation. "Nine hundred and ninety-nine in a thousand," continued he, "instead of acting thus, upon seeing my name on the record against them, would immediately have posted off to Mr. Pert, or Mr. Quibble, and made their exparte representations. He would confide in their story, (for honest men are too often unsuspecting and easily imposed on) receive his fee, frame his defence accordingly (I mean, according to the representations of his client); issue would be joined, and though the action might be continued from court to court, to give the parties time to reflect and settle the matter amicably, such a settlement would scarcely ever take place. Each attorney, being only half informed of the facts, would advise his client accordingly, and, that his case stood very fair; this would eternally bar a compromise, and after both parties had vilified each other 'till they were tired, and laid the ground-work of perhaps a dozen actions more, they would attend in dreadful anxiety, the doubtful issue of a jury trial, where neither would be able to prove one half of what they had

stated. Hence arise the complaints against courts and lawyers, but any man of discernment may see with half an eye, that the fault is not in them, but in the suitors. The legislature may build up, and throw down theory upon theory, but the evil can only be remedied by the good sense of the people themselves, it admits not of legislative cure. How much more prudent, and consistent with reason, is the course you have taken; by making me acquainted with the particulars of your defence, I shall have a full view of the whole ground, and be enabled to give such advice, to both parties, as will be most likely to bring the misunderstanding to a speedy, and I hope, satisfactory determination." I thanked him for his candor, and immediately narrated my story, in which I explicitly, and very truly, disavowed every intention to injure the interest or the feelings of Mr. Tap; declared I had written nothing but the truth, and that I thought he was prosecuting me without cause. "That may be," said the attorney, "but he will nevertheless have the advantage of you in the court. Can you prove what you have said of the *mystic* chalks upon the wall?" "I do not think that Mr. Tap will deny it," said I. "He will neither deny or affirm any thing about it," said Mr. Quirk. "I see you are very little versed indeed, in rules of court: You will certainly be cast in the cause, and it will cost you something handsome, or I am much mistaken." Pray sir, how much do you think? "Why Mr. Ficklesome," answered this honest man, "much will depend upon the jury, but considering all circumstances, I should suppose that the damages, court charges, &c. &c. would not be less than 800, or 1000 dollars."—"God bless me! so much as that" said I, "Mr. Tap hath indeed made marks to some purpose, if this be the result; he may hereafter keep his accounts, by single, double, or treble entries, for me—no court and jury can be so unreasonable." "I think differently," said Mr. Quirk, "and you must be sensible that I am much better qualified to judge in the case than yourself." Here a conversation took place, very similar to what I have sometimes listened to between peddlers and their chapmen at a fair—which was drawn to a considerable length, by Mr. Quirk's endeavor to get as much as he could, for Mr. Tap's character, and my wish to come off as cheap as possible. This conversation it is unnecessary to detail, suffice it to say, that now I got the better of the lawyer. For having perfectly satisfied him, that nothing like malice towards Mr. Tap, had dictated what I had written, and that all that I had said was true, he finally told me, "that inasmuch as he was always anxious to put a speedy end to quarrels, between his fellow citizens, and that nothing *more* than justice should be done; moreover, as he considered me unfortunate, rather than criminal; his benevolence, urged him to take the 150 dollars, I had at first offered him, with which he would endeavor to pacify Mr. Tap, and quash all further proceedings against me." I immediately

paid him the money, but not without repeating that it was not in consideration of any injury I had done to any person, but to avoid a law suit.—"Take the word of a lawyer," said he, as I bade him good by, "*suitors would find it much to their interest, if they would all observe your example.*"

P. S. The action is not yet withdrawn, but we must allow Mr. Tap, some time to cool off. This the honest lawyer told me before we parted.

For the Gleaner.

On intolerance.

READ the article INTOLERANCE, in the great *dictionnaire encyclopedique.*—Read the treaties on TOLERATION, composed on the occasion of the frightful assassination of John Calas, a citizen of Toulouse,* and if, after that, you admit of persecution in matters of religion, compare yourself boldly to the assassin Ravaillac. You know that this Ravaillac was very intolerant.

The following is the substance of all the arguments used by the intolerant:

"You! monster as you are, who shall be burned forever in the other world, and who I would burn in this if I had the power:—Have you not had the insolence to read *de Thou*, and *Bayle*, who are proscribed at Rome. When I was preaching to you on the part of God, that Sampson had killed a thousand Philistines with the jaw bone of an ass, your head, more hard than the *arsenal* from whence Sampson had drawn his *arms*, made known to me by a light movement to the right, that you believed nothing of it. And when I mentioned, that the *devil Asmodeus*, (who through jealousy twisted the necks of the seven husbands of Sarah among the Medes,) was chained in upper Egypt, I saw a light contraction of your lips named in latin *cachinnus*, which signified to me, that in the bottom of your soul, you do not believe in the *history* of *Asmodeus.*"

"And you Frederick the great, John Locke, Voltaire, Dr. Priestly, Liebnitz, Tillotson, Franklin, the emperor of China, the grand Lamas, the great Mogol, the kings of Siam and Japan, and all you, who do not believe in the truth of my theological discourses:—I declare to you, that I regard you all as pagans, so I have frequently told you, to engrave it on your brains more hard than adamant.—You are hardened sinners, and shall all go to a place of punishment, *where the worm never dieth, and where the fire is never quenched;* because I am right, and you are

* See Vol. 2d *de Politique* and *Legislation.*

wrong; for I have faith, and grace; and you have neither: and by consequence, you all merit to have your hands chopped off, and your tongues pulled out, and to be tortured, and burned in a slow fire in this world, for the glory of a most *merciful* God, who wisheth the pleasure, and happiness of all his creatures."

These are, without retrenching any thing, the maxims of the intolerant, and a sketch of all their books. Must they not be pleasant companions to live with? MICROMEGAS.

Poetry.

THE WANDERER OF SWITZERLAND.

BY JAMES MONTGOMERY.

PART IV.

The wanderer relates the circumstances attending the death of Albert.

Shep. "Pledge the memory of the brave,
And the spirits of the dead!
Pledge the venerable grave,
Valour's consecrated bed.

Wanderer! this delicious cup,
This inspiring goblet take;
Drink the beverage, drink it up,
For thy martyr'd brethren's sake."

Wand. "Hail!—all hail! the patriot's grave,
Valour's venerable bed!
Hail! the memory of the brave,
Hail! the spirits of the dead!

Time their triumphs shall proclaim,
And their rich reward be this—
Immortality of fame!
Immortality of bliss!"

Shep. "On that melancholy plain,
In that conflict of dispair,
How was noble ALBERT slain!
How didst thou, old warrior! fair?"

Wand. "In the agony of strife,
Where the heart of battle bled,
Where his country lost her life,
Glorious ALBERT bow'd his head.

When our phalanx broke away,
And our stoutest soldiers fell,
Where the dark rocks dim'd the day,
Scowling o'er the deepest dell;

There, like lions, old in blood,
Lions rallying round their den,
ALBERT and his warriors stood;
We were few, but we were men!

Breast to breast we fought the ground,
Arm to arm repell'd the foe;
Every moment was a wound,
And a death was every blow.

Thus the clouds of sunset beam
Warmer with expiring light;
Thus autumnal meteors stream
Redder through the dark'ning night.

Miracles our champions wrought—
Who their dying deeds shall tell!
O how gloriously they fought!
How triumphantly they fell!

One by one gave up the ghost,
Slain, not conquer'd—they died free!
ALBERT stood—himself an host!
Last of all the SWISS was he!

So when night with rising shade
Climbs the Alps from steep to steep,
'Till in hoary gloom array'd
All the giant-mountains sleep—

High in heaven their monarch* stands,
Bright and beauteous from afar,
Shining into distant lands
Like a new created star.

* *Mont Blanc, (which is so much higher than the surrounding Alps, that it catches and retains the beams of the sun* twenty minutes *earlier and later than they, and crowned with eternal ice,) may be seen from an immense distance purpling with his eastern light, or crimsoned with his setting glory, while mist and obscurity rest on the mountains below.*

While I struggled through the fight,
ALBERT was my sword and shield;
'Till strange horror quench'd my sight,
And I fainted on the field.

Slow awak'ning from that trance,
When my soul return'd to day,
Vanish'd were the fiends of France,
—But in ALBERT's blood I lay!

Slain for me, his dearest breath
On my lips he did resign;
Slain for me, he snatch'd his death
From the blow that menaced mine.

He had rais'd his dying head,
And was gazing on my face:
As I woke—the spirit fled,
But I *felt* his last embrace."

Shep. "Man of suffering! such a tale
Would bring tears from marble eyes!"
Wand. "Ha! my daughter's cheek grows pale!
W.'s Wife. "Help, O help! my dauhgter dies!"
Wand. "Calm thy transports, O my wife!
Peace, for these sweet orphans' sake!
W.'s Wife. "O my joy! my hope! my life;
O my child! my child! awake!"
Wand. "God! O God! whose goodness gives;
God! whose wisdom takes away;
Spare my child!"
Shep. ——"She lives! she lives!"
Wand. "Lives!--my daughter! didst thou say?
GOD ALMIGHTY! on my knees,
In the dust will I adore
Thine unsearchable decrees;
—She was dead!--she lives once more!"
W.'s Dtr. "When poor ALBERT died, no prayer
Call'd him back to hated life:
O that I had perish'd there,
Not his widow, but his wife!"
Wand. "Dare my daughter thus repine?
ALBERT! answer from above;
Tell me--are these infants thine,
Whom their mother does not love?"
W.'s Dtr. "Does not love!--my Father, hear!
Hear me, or my heart will break!
Dear is life, but only dear,
For your service and their sake.

Bow'd to Heaven's mysterious will,
I am worthy yet of you;
Yes!—I am a mother still,
Though I feel a widow too!"

Wand. "Mother! widow! daughter!—all
All kind names in one—my child!
On thy faithful neck I fall;
Kiss me—are we reconcil'd?"

W.'s Dtr. "Yes, to ALBERT I appeal!
ALBERT! answer from, above,
That my father's breast may feel
All his daughter's heart of love."

Shep's Wife—"Faint and way-worn as they be
With the day's long journey, Sire!
Let thy pilgrim family
Now with me to rest retire."

Wand. "Yes, the hour invites to sleep;
'Till the morrow we must part;
—Nay my daughter! do not weep,
Do not weep, and break my heart.

Sorrow soothing, sweet repose
On your peaceful pillows light;
Angel-hands your eye-lids close;
And GOD bless you all!—good night.

For the Gleaner.

MARIA OF MOULINES.

[*From the prose of Mr. Sterne.*]

BENEATH a poplar's fragrant shade,
With pendant clusters hung,
Maria, lost, forsaken maid,
Her love-sick anthem sung.

Nature, with each enchanting grace
Her finish'd form aray'd;
And lightly round her beauteous face
Her unbound tresses stray'd.

Supported on her milk-white hand,
Her weary head reclin'd;
Her breast the passing zephyrs fan'd,
Where grief and love combin'd.

Her dog lay pensive at her feet,
A stream ran murmuring by;
Suspended hung her tuneful reed,
In sash of azure die.

In melting notes, untaught by art,
While tears her eyes bedew,
She sung a father's broken heart—
A lover's vows untrue.

"Ah, Sylvia! * leave me not," she cry'd,
"Forsaken and alone;
I have no earthly friend beside,
And art thou faithless grown?

Bereft of reason, friends, and home,
My hopes and lover fled;
A wretched vagrant here I roam
And mourn my father dead.

Barefooted, poor, without a guide,
I climb the rugged steep;
And on the mountain's craggy side
I set me down and weep.

Around my weak, unshelt'red form,
The lowering tempest raves;
This bosom meets the ruthless storm,
And all its fury braves.

But God, who kindly smooths the gales,
To guard the new shorn lambs,
Affliction's fiercest dart repels—
Its sharpest sting disarms."

Her notes, in melting cadence drest,
The yielding passions sway'd,
And through the sympathetic breast
In soft vibrations play'd.

Ah! why should man, with impious art,
A helpless maid deceive?
Why break a fond and faithful heart?
Or why should maids believe?

Maria, hapless maid, adieu—
While pity can bestow
A sympathetic tear; for you,
The brightest eyes shall flow.

* *Her dog.*

FOR THE GLEANER.

Should the following juvenile essay, in which a schoolboy attempted to describe the emotions he felt, when about to leave the place of his nativity, to commence the study of a profession, be deemed worthy of insertion, it is at your service, provided it will not occupy the place of more valuable communications.

AN ADIEU TO THE MUSE.

"ADIEU to the muse," sigh'd a wanderer oft',
O'er the haunts of his boyhood as fondly he rov'd,
And his bosom was thrill'd, with emotions more soft,
As he wistfully gaz'd on the scenes that he lov'd.

A crimson cloud skirted the horizon's bound,
Whose blush brightly glow'd on the Lehigh's smooth stream,
And the evening's last ray, on the foliage around,
That mantled the brink, shed a lingering gleam.

Yet not to the wanderer this glorious view,
Could furnish a spell to drive sadness away;
But thus o'er the vale as he slowly withdrew,
In heart-felt effusions he breath'd forth his lay.

"'Twas here, in these scenes of my early delight,
That the muse first inspired me with raptures unknown;
And nature since then wore an aspect more bright,
More wildly romantic my day-dreams have grown.

"And dear was each time, when the half opening flower,
That whitens the hawthorn rose faint on my view;
For bright as the bow, in the rear of the shower,
Were the visions of bliss that fond fancy then drew.

"But when the last leaf from the wild-briar was torn,
And sported along on the autumnal gale,
With nature my heart would in sympathy mourn,
And sweet was her sigh o'er the withering vale.

'In each season new charms she unveil'd to my eye,
But hope sickens now at futurity's views,
For far from the haunts of my boyhood I fly,
And in search after wealth must relinquish the muse.

"Yet what are the pleasures which wealth can bestow,
To repay me the loss of my solace and pride?
Can they equal the raptures, that in my heart glow,
As I wander alone by the Lehigh's green side?

"Once I saw the grass wave o'er a tomb's silent head,
While the winds whistled shrilly around;
And it sadened my soul, for I thought on the dead,
As the mournful blast swept o'er the ground.

" When the voice of complaint seem'd to rise on my ear,
'Twas an orphan's, that told of oppression and woe;
For ah! in that mansion so silent and drear,
Repos'd all his hopes of protection below.

" 'Twas fancied: but yet it awaken'd a sigh,
In a bosom alive to each accent of woe,
For I knew that if real, one as humble as I,
Could nought but that sigh on the sufferer bestow.

" And oh! I exclaim'd, Heavenly Father but grant,
That the day may arrive, when the victims of grief,
When those who now pine in misfortune and want,
In me may find solace, in me find relief.

" Yet bliss so supreme 'tis for wealth to impart,
And that thought alone brightens futurity's views,
Tho' far from the haunts of my youth I depart,
And here breathe my last fond adieu to the muse."

LOTHAIRE.

FOR THE GLEANER.

Ah! little think the gay licentious proud,
Whom pleasure, power and affluence surround;
They who their thoughtless hours in giddy mirth,
And wanton, often cruel, riot waste;
Ah! little think they while they dance along,
How many feel this very moment death,
And all the said variety of pain. THOMSON.

" Ah! little think the gay licentious proud,"
Whom grandeur hurries giddily along,
Ah! little think they on the shiv'ring crowd,
That ragged round the door of plenty throng.

Ah! little feel they, while in flannels roll'd,
The bleak north blasts, that piercing pinch the poor;
Ah! little feel they round their fires the cold,
That whistles through the shatter'd cabbin door.

Ah! little think they, or else little know,
The spectre ills, their fellow creatures haunt;
Yes, little think they, or they would bestow,
Some small assistance on each child of want.

Ah! let enjoyment's sons a moment pause,
When roaring mirth back echos from the wall;
Then let reflection plead wan miseries cause,
And heave the groans that from the wretched fall.

Then let just reason the two lots compare,
Of mirth and mis'ry in one simple view,
And let pale want, in knotted rags be there,
And shew her frozen feet without a shoe.

Then let these sons of riot start aghast,
And crash the board that caus'd their guilty mirth,
Or share with poverty the rich repast;
Who, with themselves are twins of the same birth.

(Tho' not the most reflective of mankind,)
How oft have I, when stretch'd in my warm bed,
Let pity call to want's abode, my mind,
When loud a :d long the storm rag'd o'er my head.

Oft has my fancy taken the drear round,
Where trembling poverty on straw-beds prest;
No fire to warm, no floor but the bare ground,
No roof to screen them from the bleak north west.

How has my soul shrunk at itself disgraced,
To see one half of mankind in distress,
While t'other half in wanton riot waste,
What would with care their brothers wants suppress.

DABLERUS.

A SONG.

ROUND love's elysian bowers,
The softest prospects rise;
There bloom the sweetest flowers,
There shine the purest skies;
And joy and rapture gild awhile
The cloudless heaven of BEAUTY's smile.

Round LOVE's deserted bowers
Tremendous rocks arise;
Cold mildews blight the flowers,
Tornadoes rend the skies;
And PLEASURE's waning moon goes down
Amid the night of BEAUTY's frown.

Then YOUTH, thou fond believer!
The wily Syren shun:
Who trusts the dear deceiver,
Will surely be undone!
When BEAUTY triumphs, ah! beware!
Her smile is hope!—her frown despair!

Register and Gazette.

REPORT

Of the Secretary of the Treasury on the subject of Public Roads and Canals; made in pursuance of a resolution, of the Senate of the United States, of March 2, 1807.

(Concluded from page 184.)

TURNPIKE, OR ARTIFICIAL ROADS.

A GREAT number of artificial roads have been completed in the eastern and middle states, at an expense varying from less than one thousand to fourteen thousand dollars a mile. The labor bestowed on the least expensive species consists in shortening the distance, diminishing the ascent of hills, removing rocks, levelling, raising and giving a proper shape to the bed of the roads, draining them by ditches, and erecting bridges over the intervening streams. But the natural soil of the road is used, instead of covering it with a stratum of gravel or pounded stones.

It appears by one of the papers marked (D.) under which letter will be found all the information which has been obtained respecting roads, that fifty turnpike companies have been incorporated, since the year 1803, in the state of Connecticut alone; and that the roads undertaken by those companies are all of that description. Thirty-nine of those roads extending together 770 miles, are completed. The most expensive is that from New Haven to Hartford, which has cost 79,261 dollars; or the distance being thirty-four miles and three quarters, at the rate of 2,280 dollars a mile: but about 18,000 dollars of the capital have been expended in the purchase of the land through which the road is carried. The nett income of this road, deducting the annual repairs and expenses from the annual tolls, does not exceed three thousand dollars. Of six of the roads, which together extend 120 miles, no account has been received. The other thirty-two extend together 615 miles, and have cost only 340,000 dollars, or on an average at the rate of 550 dollars a mile: and it seems that the aggregate of annual tolls on the whole is 86,000 dollars; from which deducting the annual repairs and expenses, amounting to 48,000 dollars, leaves a nett income of 38,000 dollars, or of about eleven per cent. on the capital expended.

No particular account has been received of the roads in the other eastern states; but it is known that besides some of a similar description with those of the state of Connecticut, several of a more expensive kind have been completed, particularly in

Massachusetts. The cost has varied from 3000 to 14,000 dollars a mile; and amongst artificial roads of the first grade may be mentioned those from Boston to Providence, to Salem and to Newburyport. These are all covered with an artificial stratum of gravel or pounded stones, and finished in the most substantial manner. Great expense has also been incurred in order to shorten the distance without exceeding the angle of ascent, which is fixed at 5 degrees; and it is stated that the road to Newburyport, 32 miles in length, and in which marshes and rocks presented considerable obstacles, has cost 400,000 dollars, or at the rate of 12,500 dollars a mile. Those expensive roads, however useful and permanent, appear to be much less profitable than those of Connecticut. The Salem road is said to yield six per cent. another road has been stated as yielding eight per cent. the income of all the others in the state of Massachusetts, is said not to exceed on an average three per cent. and that of the road from Boston to Newburyport, amounts to no more than two per cent.

A greater capital has been vested on turnpike roads in the state of New-York, than in any other. In less than seven years, sixty-seven companies have been incorporated, with a nominal capital of near five millions of dollars, for the purpose of making more than 3000 miles of artificial road; and twenty-one other companies have also been incorporated with a capital of 400,000 dollars; for the purpose of erecting 21 toll bridges. Although no particular account has been received either of the capital actually expended, of the annual amount of tolls, or of the materials of the roads, it is known that progress has been made: and it has been stated that nine hundred miles of road were already completed by 28 companies, whose capital amounted to 1,800,000 dollars, and who had 200 miles of road more to finish.

Those roads extend in every direction, but particularly from every town or village on the north river, westwardly and northwestwardly towards the waters of the Susquehanna, and those of the great lakes. The most expensive is that from Albany to Schenectady, fourteen miles long, and which has cost at the rate of ten thousand dollars a mile. Near 140 miles of roads extending westwardly from Albany and Schenectady, appear to have cost at the rate of 2,500 or 3,000 dollars a mile. The expense of all the others does not seem on an average to exceed 1,250 dollars a mile.

More detailed information has been obtained respecting the roads in New-Jersey, Pennsylvania and Maryland.

In New-Jersey a turnpike road has lately been completed from Trenton to Brunswick. The distance is 25 miles; the greatest angle of ascent 3 degrees, and the road is nearly in a straight line, the only considerable obstruction being the "Sand Hills," through which it was necessary to dig at the depth of thirty feet, in order not to exceed the angle of ascent. The road is 36 feet

wide, fifteen feet of which are covered with about 6 inches of gravel. A few wooden bridges with stone abutments and piers have been erected across the intervening streams. The whole expense is stated at 2,500 dollars a mile. From Brunswick the road will be extended to Elizabeth town, and the work is now progressing. Another road has been undertaken in the same state from Brunswick to Easton, on the river Delaware. The distance is 43 miles, of which eleven have been completed at an expense of 40,000 dollars. This road will be more expensive than the preceding, both on account of the ground, the bridges being more numerous, and the Blue Ridge, (Musconekong mountain) intervening; and because a more substantial facing or greater thickness of gravel is requisite. The funds of the company are exhausted.

In Pennsylvania artificial roads of the most substantial kind, have been completed, or are progressing, from Philadelphia, in sundry directions.

The principal are to Bristol and Trenton, 12 miles of which are completed; to Germantown and Perkiomen, with two branches to Willow Grove, and to Chesnut Hill; and to Lancaster and Columbia, with a branch to Harrisburgh.

The distance from Philadelphia to Perkiomen is 25 miles and a quarter; the two branches extend, one 10 miles and the other 7 miles and a half; making together, near 43 miles. The angle of ascent is 4 degrees; the breadth of the road fifty feet, of which 28 feet, having a convexity of 15 inches, are covered with a stratum either of gravel 18 inches thick or of pounded stones 12 inches thick. One half of the stones forming the lower part of the stratum, are broken into pieces not more than five inches in diameter: the other half or upper part of the stratum consists of stones broken into pieces not more than two inches and a half in diameter: and this difference in the size of the stones is represented as a considerable defect. Side or summer roads extend on each side of the gravel or stone road. The five miles next to Philadelphia have cost at the rate of 14,517 dollars a mile. The other 20 miles and a half at the rate of 10,490 dollars a mile. Yet there were no natural impediments, and only small bridges or culverts were necessary. The capital expended on these 25 miles and a half is 285,000 dollars: the tolls amount to 19,000 dollars: the annual repairs and expenses to 10,000 dollars; the nett income to about 9,000 dollars or little more than three per cent. on the capital expended.

The distance from the Schuylkill, at Philadelphia, to Lancaster, is 62 miles and a quarter. Exclusively of the side or summer roads, twenty-four feet of the bed of the road are covered with a stratum of pounded stones 18 inches thick in the middle of the road, and decreasing each way to 12 inches. The Valley hills are the most elevated and steep on the road; but the angle of

ascent no where exceeds 4 degrees. Stone bridges have been erected across all the intervening streams. That across the river Conestoga consisting of nine arches, is private property; and the most expensive built by the company, is that across the Brandywine, consisting of three arches of solid masonry, and which cost 12,000 dollars. The capital of the company amounted to 360,000 dollars; but this being insufficient, it became necessary to apply a considerable portion of the tolls to the completion of the work. The whole expense amounts to 465,000 dollars, or at the rate of about 7,500 dollars a mile. The annual tolls have not yet exceeded 25,000 dollars; and the annual repairs and expenses are estimated at 13,000, leaving a nett income of about 12,000 dollars. The prospect of an increased profit, derived from the proposed extension of the road, has however raised the price of that stock nearly to par.

The Lancaster road, the first extensive turnpike that was completed in the United States, is the first link of the great western communication from Philadelphia. It has been extended ten miles westwardly to Columbia on the Susquehanna, and another branch is now progressing northwestwardly to Harrisburgh, also on the Susquehanna, and 36 miles from Lancaster. The state of Pennsylvania has also incorporated two companies in order to extend the road by two different routes as far as Pittsburgh on the Ohio, and near 300 miles from Philadelphia. The southern route, following the main post road, passes by Bedford and Somerset. The northern route passes by Huntingdon and Frankstown, the highest point to which the Juniata branch of the Susquehanna is navigable. To this route the state has authorized a subscription of one hundred thousand dollars.

Other roads in a north-west direction from Philadelphia, towards the Gennessee and Presqu'isle on lake Erie, are also progressing, and have been encouraged by the subscriptions or donations of the legislature. They are generally on a much less expensive plan than those in the direction to Pittsburgh. A section of 30 miles from Lausanne on the Lehigh, to Nescopeck on the Susquehanna, has been completed at the expense of 36,000 dollars, by a company; and it is intended to extend it 70 miles further to Newton, on the Tioga branch of the Susquehanna.

In Maryland, roads extending from Baltimore in various directions, have lately been undertaken by several companies and are rapidly progressing. On the falls turnpike, which extends in a northerly direction, about four miles of a road 22 feet wide, covered with a stratum of pounded stones 10 inches thick, and having an ascent not exceeding 4 degrees, have been completed at the rate of 7,500 dollars a mile.

The "Reister town" turnpike, in a northwestwardly direction, extends 16 miles to that village, whence two branches extending one 19 and the other 29 miles farther, will enter Pennsyl-

vania at two different places. The road 24 feet wide, is covered with a stratum 12 inches thick, of pounded stones not more than 3 inches in diameter. The angle of ascent does not exceed 3 degrees and a half. Ten miles have been completed at the expense of 10,000 dollars a mile, and the work is progressing. The capital of the company amounts to 420,000 dollars.

The capital of the "Fredericktown" turnpike company amounts to 500,000 dollars; and the company is authorised to open the great western road, as far as Boonsborough, beyond the Blue Ridge, and 62 miles from Baltimore. The angle of ascent will not exceed 4 degrees; the road has a convexity of 9 inches, and on a breadth of 22 feet is covered with a stratum 10 inches thick of pounded stones, not exceeding three inches in diameter, over which are spread two inches of gravel or coarse sand. The first 20 miles next to Baltimore have cost at the rate of 9,000 dollars, and the next 17 miles are contracted for at the rate of 7,000 dollars a mile.

The distance from Boonsborough to Cumberland, at the foot of the Allegheny mountain, following the present road is 73 miles, and although the company is not yet authorised to extend the turnpike to that place, the ground has been surveyed, and it is ascertained that the road may be continued with an angle of ascent not exceeding 4 degrees. The ascent of the road laid out by the United States from Cumberland to Brownsville, on the Monongahela, does not exceed 5 degrees, and the distance is 72 miles: making the whole distance of a turnpike road from Baltimore to the navigable waters of the Ohio, 207 miles. The distance from the City of Washington to the same spot on the Monongahela is some miles shorter, being as has already been stated, the shortest communication between tide-water and the navigable western waters.

South of the Potomac few artificial roads have been undertaken. From Alexandria one is now progressing in a northwestwardly direction towards Middleborough. Another has lately been commenced from Richmond to Ross's coal mine. But the only one which, so far as any accounts have been received, is completed, extends 12 miles from Manchester opposite to Richmond, in a westwardly direction to the coal mines of Falling creek. This road, 36 feet wide is gravelled and has cost 50,000 dollars; but the last 4 miles did not cost more than at the rate of 3000 dollars a mile. Yet it is sufficiently substantial, the route being very level, to admit waggons carrying four tons.

"The greater progress made in the improvement of roads in the northern parts of the union, must be principally ascribed to a more compact population, which renders those improvements more necessary, and at the same time supplies with greater facility the means of effecting them. The same difference is perceptible in the number of bridges erected in the several states.

In the eastern states, and particularly Massachusetts, wooden bridges uniting boldness to elegance, and having no defect but want of durability, have been erected over the broadest and deepest rivers. In the lower counties of Pennsylvania stone bridges are generally found across all the small streams. Both in that state, and at some distance eastwardly, bridges with stone piers and abutments, and a wooden superstructure are common over wide rivers. Of these the most expensive, and which may be considered as the first in the United States, is the permanent Schuylkill bridge near Philadelphia, erected by a company at an expense of 3,000,000 dollars. Its length including the abutments does not exceed 750 feet, and it is supported only by two piers and the abutments. But those piers, 195 feet apart, are of the most solid workmanship, and one of them was sunk at a depth of more than 24 feet below low water. The bridge is 42 feet wide, and the wooden superstructure is enclosed and covered with a shingle roof.

The want of bridges south of Pennsylvania, even on the main post road, is sensibly felt. One lately thrown across the Potomac 3 miles above the city of Washington, and which without any intervening piers is wholly suspended to iron chains extending from bank to bank, deserves notice on account of the boldness of its construction, and of its comparative cheapness. The principle of this new plan, derived from the tenacity of iron, seems applicable to all rapid streams of a moderate breadth.

The general principles of improved roads seem to be; 1st, the reduction of hills by diminishing the angle of ascent, which ought not to exceed, whenever practicable, 3 degrees and a half, and under no circumstances five degrees: 2d, a sufficient convexity in the bed of the road, together with ditches and drains, all which are intended to prevent the injury caused by standing water or freshets: 3d an artificial bed of pounded stones or gravel sufficiently substantial to support the weight of the carriages in general use on the road, either for the conveyance of persons, or for the transportation of merchandize.

On the last point it appears from the facts already stated, or scattered in the communications received on that subject: 1st, That the stones ought to be similar in quality and reduced to the same size, which should not exceed three inches in diameter: 2d, That the preferable qualities of stone, rank in the following order—hard black stone, granite, flint, or quartz, blue lime stone, white ditto: 3d, That the stratum may be either of pounded stones 12 inches thick, or of pounded stones 10 inches thick, with 2 inches of gravel spread over the stones; or entirely of gravel 18 inches thick: 4th, That when the materials are equally convenient, the expense of those three modes will not materially differ, but that the rate of expense depends principally on the number of hills and bridges, distance of materials, breadth of the

road, and price of labor: and 5th, That the general adoption of broad wheels for the transportation of heavy loads, is necessary to the full enjoyment of the advantages expected from the most substantial artificial roads. On the degree of convexity and on the proper shape to be given to the natural bed of the road under the artificial stratum, a diversity of opinions seems to prevail.

The roads heretofore made may be divided into three general classes.

1. Those where the only improvements consists in the reduction of hills, and in the convexity and ditches of the road, whereby the angle of ascent is rendered more easy, and standing water excluded; but where the natural soil is used without any artificial stratum. The expense of these roads may vary according to local circumstances, and the perfection of the work, from five hundred to one thousand dollars a mile. They are most generally in use, in the eastern states, and may be introduced with advantage in all those districts of country, where wealth does not admit more expensive improvements, or where the materials of an artificial stratum are altogether wanting. It is only in the last case, that they may be considered as a national object; and no other improvement besides bridges and causeways, is perhaps practicable in the lower country of the southern states. Iron, and even timber rail roads, may however be sometimes substituted in those level parts of the country, where stones and gravel are not to be found.

2. Roads prepared as above, of a reduced breadth and covered with a thin coat of gravel not more than six or nine inches thick: such as the turnpike lately made between Trenton and Brunswick. These roads, the expense of which may be estimated at about 3000 dollars a mile, may be used wherever the frost does not materially affect them, and in every climate, where they are intended principally for the conveyance of persons, and not for the transportation of heavy loads.

3. The artificial roads of the best construction, such as have been already described. These when not exceeding 22 feet in breadth, and except in the vicinity of large cities, will cost at the rate of 7000 dollars a mile, exclusively of bridges over large rivers. And they must be resorted to, whenever a *commercial* road for heavy transportation is intended, particularly in the middle states, or rather in the United States, between 41 and 36 degrees of north latitude. North of the 41st degree, the snow lies generally the whole winter; and the great bulk of heavy transportation is effected in sleighs during that season. There is therefore less necessity for using the roads in the spring; and they are also better protected against the effects of the frost by the snow. South of the 36th degree, which in the Atlantic states may be considered as the boundary of the great cotton cultivation, the frost does not materially injure the roads. It is between those two extremities that the most substantial are required;

and it also happens that the great land communications with the western country, which considerably increase the amount of transportation, are principally within the same limits.

The same principles, which have directed the arrangement adopted in this report in relation to canals, will also point out those roads which seem in the first instance to claim the patronage of the general government.

Those which appear most necessary for the communications between the Atlantic and western rivers have already been mentioned under that head; and the improvement of the water communication between the North river and the great lakes ought to take the precedence of any other in that direction.

That road which therefore seems exclusively to claim public attention, is a great turnpike extending from Maine to Georgia in the general direction of the sea coast and main post road, and passing through all the principal sea ports. The general convenience and importance of such a work are too obvious to require any comments: and the expense seems to be the primary object of consideration.

The distance will be roughly estimated at 1,600 miles; and from what has been stated on the subject of roads generally, it may be inferred that the greater part of the road being intended almost exclusively for travelling, and not for transportation of heavy articles, the expense cannot exceed the rate of 3,000 dollars a mile. For although some detached portions of route, being commercial roads, must be improved as such, and at a greater expense; an equivalent reduction in other parts will result from those portions which are already improved by private companies, and from the impossibility, for want of materials for an artificial stratum, of going in some places beyond what has been described as the first or cheapest species of turnpikes. The whole expense may therefore be estimated at 4,800,000 dollars.

A secondary object, but of more importance to government than to individuals, would be the improvement, on a much less expensive scale, of certain portions of roads leading to some points on the extremes of the union, intended principally for the purpose of accelerating the progress of the mail, and the prompt transmission of information of a public nature. The points contemplated, are Detroit, St. Louis in Upper Louisianna, and New Orleans. The portions of road which traversing a wilderness cannot be improved without the aid of the United States, are: from the Tuscarora branch of the Muskingum to Detroit; from Cincinnati, by Vincennes, to St. Louis; and from Nashville in Tennessee, or Athens in Georgia, to Natches. The expense necessary to enable the mail and even stages to proceed at the rate of 80 miles a day, may, at the rate of about 200 dollars a mile, including bridges over all the small streams, be estimated for those three roads, at 200,000 dollars.

RECAPITULATION AND RESOURCES.

THE improvements which have been respectfully suggested as most important, in order to facilitate the communication between the great geographical divisions of the United States, will now be recapitulated; and their expense compared with the resources applicable to that object.

I. From north to south, in a direction parallel to the sea coast:

	Dollars.	
1. Canals opening an inland navigation for sea vessels from Massachusetts to North Carolina, being more than two thirds of the Atlantic sea coast of the United States, and across all the principal capes, cape Fear excepted,	3,000,000	
2. A great turnpike road from Maine to Georgia, along the whole extent of the Atlantic sea cost, - - - - - - - - - - -	4,800,000	
		7,800,000

II. From east to west, forming communications across the mountains between the Atlantic and western rivers:

1. Improvement of the navigation of four great Atlantic rivers, including canals parallel to them, - - - - - - - - -	1,500,000	
2. Four first rate turnpike roads from those rivers across the mountains, to the four corresponding western rivers,	2,800,000	
3. Canal around the falls of the Ohio, - -	300,000	
4. Improvement of roads to Detroit, St. Louis and New Orleans, - - - - - - -	200,000	
		4,800,000

III. In a northern and north westwardly direction, forming inland navigations between the Atlantic sea coast, and the great lakes and the St. Laurence:

1. Inland navigation between the North river and lake Champlain, - - - - - - -	800,000	
2. Great inland navigation opened the whole way by canals, from the North river to lake Ontario, - - - - - - - - - - -	2,200,000	
3. Canal around the falls and rapids of Niagara, opening a sloop navigation from lake Ontario to the upper lakes, as far as the extremities of lake Michigan, - - - -	1,000,000	
		4,000,000
Making together, - - - - - - - -		$ 16,600,000

IV. The great geographical features of the country have been solely adhered to in pointing out those lines of communication: and these appear to embrace all the great interests of the union, and to be calculated to diffuse and increase the national wealth in a very general way, by opening an intercourse between the remotest extremes of the United States. Yet it must necessarily result from an adherence to that principle, that those parts of the Atlantic states through which the great western and northwest communications will be carried, must, in addition to the general advantages in which they will participate, receive from those communications greater local and immediate benefits, than the eastern, and perhaps southern states. As the expense must be defrayed from the general funds of the union, justice, and perhaps policy not less than justice, seem to require that a number of local improvements, sufficient to equalize the advantages, should also be undertaken in those states, parts of states, or districts, which are less immediately interested in those inland communications. Arithm etical precision cannot indeed be obtained in objects of that kind; nor would an apportionment of the monies applied, according to the population of each state, be either just or practicable; since roads, and particularly canals, are often of greater utility to the states which they unite, than to those through which they pass. But a sufficient number of local improvements, consisting either of roads or canals, may without any material dificulty be selected so as to do substantial justice, and give general satisfaction. Without pretending to suggest what would be the additional sum necessary for that object, it will, for the sake of round numbers, be estimated at - - - - - - 3,400,000

Which added to the sum estimated for general improvements, - - - - - - - - - -	16,600,000
Would make an aggregate of twenty millions of dollars, - - - - - - - - - -	20,000,000

An annual appropriation of two millions of dollars, would accomplish all those great objects in ten years, and may without inconvenience, be supplied in time of peace, by the existing revenues and resources of the United States. This may be examplified in several ways.

The annual appropriation on account of the principnl and interest of the public debt, has, during the last six years, amounted to eight millions of dollars. After the present year, or at farthest, after the ensuing year, the sum which on account of the irredeemable nature of the remaining debt, may be applied to that object, cannot in any one year exceed 4,600,000 dollars, leaving therefore from that source alone, an annual surplus of 3,400,000 dollars, applicable to any other object.

From the 1st January, 1801, to the 1st January 1809, a pe-

riod of eight years, the United States shall have discharged about 34 millions of the principal of the old debt, or deducting the Louisianna debt, incurred during the same period, and not yet discharged, about 23 millions of dollars. They may with equal facility, apply in a period of ten years, a sum of 20 millions of dollars, to internal improvements.

The annual permanent revenue of the United States, calculated on a state of general peace, and on the most moderate estimate, was in a report made to congress on the 6th day of December, 1806, computed for the years 1809–1815, at 14 millions of dollars. The annual expenses, on the peace establishment, and including the 4,600,000 dollars, on account of the debt, and 400,000 dollars for contingencies, do not exceed eight millions and a half, leaving an annual surplus of five millions and a half of dollars. To provide for the protection and defence of the country, is undoubtedly the object to which the resources of the United States, must, in the first instance be applied, and to the exclusion of all others, if the times shall require it. But it is believed, that in times of peace, (and to such period only are these remarks applicable) the surplus will be amply sufficient to defray the expenses of all the preparatory measures of a permanent nature which prudence may suggest, and to pay the sum destined for internal improvements. Three millions annually applied during the same period of ten years, would arm every man in the United States, fill the public arsenals and magazines, erect every battery and fortification which could be manned, and even, if thought eligible, build a navy. That the whole surplus would be inadequate to the support of any considerable increase of the land or naval force kept in actual service in time of peace, will be readily admitted. But such a system is not contemplated: if ever adopted, the objects of this report must probably be abandoned. For, it has not heretofore been found an easy task for any government to indulge in that species of expenses, which leaving no trace behind it, adds nothing to the real strength of the country, and at the same time to provide for either its permanent defence or improvement.

It must not be omitted that the facility of communications, constitutes, particularly in the United States, an important branch of national defence. Their extensive territory opposes a powerful obstacle to the progress of an enemy. But on the other hand, the number of regular forces, which may be raised, necessarily limited by the population, will for many years be inconsiderable when compared to that extent of territory. That defect cannot otherwise be supplied than by those great national improvements, which will afford the means of a rapid concentration of that regular force, and of a formidable body of militia, on any given point.

Amongst the resources of the union, there is one which from

its nature seems more particularly applicable to internal improvements. Exclusively of Louisianna, the general government possesses, in trust for the people of the United States, about one hudred millions of acres fit for cultivation, north of the river Ohio, and near fifty millions south of the state of Tennessee. For the disposition of those lands a plan has been adopted, calculated to enable every industrious citizen to become a freeholder, to secure indisputable titles to the purchasers, to obtain a national revenue, and above all to suppress monopoly. Its success has surpassed that of every former attempt, and exceeded the expectations of its authors. But a higher price than had usually been paid for waste lands by the first inhabitants of the frontier became an unavoidable ingredient of a system intended for general benefit, and was necessary in order to prevent the public lands being engrossed by individuals possessing greater wealth, activity or local advantages. It is believed that nothing could be more gratifying to the purchasers, and to the inhabitants of the western states generally, or better calculated to remove popular objections, and to defeat insidious efforts, than the application of the proceeds of the sales to improvements conferring general advantages on the nation, and an immediate benefit on the purchasers and inhabitants themselves. It may be added, that the United States, considered merely as owners of the soil, are also deeply interested in the opening of those communications, which must necessarily enhance the value of their property. Thus the opening of an inland navigation from tide water to the great lakes, would immediately give to the great body of lands bordering on those lakes, as great value as if they were situated at the distance of one hundred miles by land from the sea coast. And if the proceeds of the first ten millions of acres which may be sold, were applied to such improvements, the United States would be amply repaid in the sale of the other ninety millions.

The annual appropriation of two millions of dollars drawn from the general revenues of the union, which has been suggested, could operate to its full extent only in times of peace and under prosperous circumstances. The application of the proceeds of the sales of the public lands, might perhaps be permanent until it had amounted to a certain sum, and until the most important improvements had been effected. The fund created by those improvements, the expense of which has been estimated at twenty millions of dollars, would afterwards become itself a perpetual resource for further improvements. Although some of those first communications should not become immediately productive, and although the same liberal policy, which dictated the measure, would consider them less as objects of revenue to government, than of increased wealth and general convenience to the nation, yet they would all sooner or later acquire, as productive property, their par value. Whenever that had taken place in relation to

any of them, the stock might be sold to individuals or companies, and the proceeds applied to a new improvement. And by persevering in that plan, a succession of improvements would be effected until every portion of the United States should enjoy all the advantages of inland navigation and improved roads, of which it was susceptible. To effect that great object, a disbursement of twenty millions of dollars, applied with more or less rapidity according to the circumstances of the United States, would be amply sufficient.

The manner in which the public monies may be applied to such objects, remains to be considered.

It is evident that the United States cannot under the constitution open any road or canal, without the consent of the state through which such road or canal must pass. In order therefore to remove every impediment to a national plan of internal improvements, an amendment to the constitution was suggested by the executive when the subject was recommended to the consideration of congress. Until this be obtained, the assent of the states being necessary for each improvement, the modifications under which that assent may be given, will necessarily control the manner of applying the money. It may be however observed that in relation to the specific improvements which have been suggested, there is hardly any which is not either already authorised by the states respectively, or so immediately beneficial to them, as to render it highly probable that no material difficulty will be experienced in that respect.

The monies may be applied in two different manners: the United States may with the assent of the states, undertake some of the works at their sole expense; or they may subscribe a certain number of shares of the stock of companies incorporated for the purpose. Loans might also in some instances be made to such companies. The first mode would perhaps, by effectually controlling local interests, give the most proper general direction to the work. Its details would probably be executed on a more economical plan by private companies. Both modes may perhaps be blended together so as to obtain the advantages pertaining to each. But the modifications of which the plan is susceptible must vary according to the nature of the work, and of the characters, and seem to belong to that class of details, which are not the immediate subjects of consideration.

At present the only work undertaken by the United States at their sole expense, and to which the assent of the states has been obtained, is the road from Cumberland to Brownsville. An appropriation may for that purpose be made at any time. In relation to all other works, the United States have nothing at this time in their power but to assist those already authorized, either by loans or becoming stockholders; and the last mode appears the most eligible. The only companies incorpo-

rated for effecting some of the improvements considered in this report as of national and first rate importance, which have applied for such assistance, are the Chesapeake and Delaware canal, the Susquehanna canal, and the Dismal swamp companies; and authority might be given to subscribe a certain number of shares to each, on condition that the plan of the work to be executed should be approved by the general government. A subscription to the Ohio canal, to the Pittsburgh road, and perhaps to some other objects not fully ascertained, is also practicable at this time.

As an important basis of the general system, an immediate authority might also be given to take the surveys and levels of the routes of the most important roads and canals which are contemplated; a work always useful, and by which the practicability and expense of the undertakings would be ascertained with much more correctness than in this report. A moderate appropriation would be sufficient for those several objects.

In the selection of the objects submitted in obedience to the order of the senate, as claiming in the first instance the aid of the general government, general principles have been adhered to, as best calculated to suppress every biass, of partiality to particular objects. Yet some such biass, of which no individual is perfectly free, may without being felt, have operated on this report. The national legislature alone, embracing every local interest, and superior to every local consideration, is competent to the selection of such national objects. The materials contained in the papers herewith transmitted, and the information to be derived from surveys taken under the authority of the general government, will furnish the facts necessary for a correct decision. Two communications, by Mr. B. H. Latrobe, and by Mr. Rorbert Fulton, marked E. and F. are in the meanwhile respectfully referred to, as containing much interesting practical information, connected with observations of a general nature, on the subject.

All which is respectfully submitted.

ALBERT GALLATIN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
4th April, 1808.

REPORTS

From the Treasury department of the United States to Congress.

December 26, 1808.

SIR,

I HAVE the honor to transmit herewith a statement of goods, wares, and merchandize, exported from the United

States nominally during one year prior to the 1st day of October, 1808; but in fact, during the three last months of the year 1807, subsequent exportations having been prevented by the embargo.

The goods, wares and merchandize of domestic growth or manufacture, included in the statement, are estimated at	$ 9,433,546
And those of foreign growth and manufacture at	12,997,414
Amounting together to	22,430,960

The articles of domestic growth or manufacture may be arranged under the following heads, viz.

Produce of the sea,	832,000
forest,	1,399,000
agriculture,	6,746,000
manufactures,	344,000
Uncertain.	112,000
	9,433,000

—

SIR,

I have the honor to transmit the annual statement of the district tonnage of the U. States, on the 31st of December, 1807, together with an explanatory letter of the register of the treasury.

It appears from those documents, that the actual tonnage of the United states on the 31st of December, 1807, might be estimated at about 1,268,000, tons, viz.

Registered tonnage employed in foreign trade	840,163
Licensed tonnage in coasting do.	284,374
Registered and licensed employed in cod and whale fisheries,	83,888
	1,208,425
Sea-letter vessels, (estimated actual tonnage)	59,575
	1,268,000

I have the honor to be, &c.

ALBERT GALLATIN.

—

Register's office, Dec. 13th, 1808.

SIR,

I have the honor to transmit the annual statement to the 31st of December, 1807, of the district tonnage of the United States.

	Tons.	95ths.
The corrected registered tonnage is stated in the said abstract at	848,306	85
The enrolled and licensed at	349,028	37
The fishing vessels at	71,213	30
Amounting to	1,268,548	57

The tonnage on which duties were connected during the same year, amounted as follows:

Registered tonnage paying duty on each voyage,			1,020,472 35
Enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the coasting trade, paying an annual duty,			284,374 47
Fishing vessels the same,			75,743 58
			1,380,590 45
NOTE.—Duties were also paid on tonnage owned by citizens of the United States engaged in foreign trade not registered,	69,403 59		
Do. coasting trade,	591 24		69,994 83
Total tonnage on which duties were collected			1,450,585 33
The registered tonnage being corrected according to the mode prescribed for the government of the collectors of the several districts, and as stated in the communication made by the secretary of the treasury to congress the 27th of February, 1802, is considered as the true amount, as near as may be, of that description of tonnage,			848,306 85
The enrolled and licensed tonnage is stated at the amount upon which the annual duty was collected in 1807, on that description of tonnage, as being the most correct, and may be considered nearly the true amount,			284,374 47
The fishing vessels the same,			75,743 58
The district tonnage of the United States, on 31st Dec. 1807, is stated at			1,208,425 00
Of the registered tonnage, amounting as above stated to 848,306 85, it has been ascertained that there were engaged in the whale fishery,			8,144 25
Enrolled and licensed tonnage also in the whale fishery,			907 17
Amounting to			9,051 42

It appears by the collector's abstracts, that 99,783, 92-95ths tons new vessels were built in the year 1807, whereof 71,175,85-95ths tons were registered, and 28,608 7-95th tons were enrolled.

I have the honor to be, &c.

JOSEPH NOURSE, Register.

Honorable Albert Gallatin,
Secretary of the Treasury.